

**NINTH GRADE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CULTURAL AWARENESS
AND TEACHER BELIEFS AS MEASURED BY THE CULTURAL
AWARENESS AND BELIEFS INVENTORY: RELATIONSHIP WITH THE
TEXAS ASSESSMENT OF KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS READING SCORES**

A Dissertation

by

SHANAH LEA YANDELL

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2010

Major Subject: Curriculum and Instruction

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Committee:

Co-Chairs of Committee,	Norvella P. Carter Stephanie L. Knight
Committee Members,	Patricia J. Larke Lauren D. Cifuentes
Head of Department,	Dennie Smith

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ABSTRACT

Ninth Grade Teachers' Perceptions of Cultural Awareness and Teacher Beliefs as Measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory: Relationship with the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills Reading Scores. (December 2010)

Shanah Lea Yandell, B.S., Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi;

M.S., Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi

Co-Chairs of Advisory Committee: Dr. Norvella P. Carter
Dr. Stephanie L. Knight

This descriptive, correlational study investigated small learning community campuses' teachers' perceptions and traditional high school campuses' teachers' perceptions of eight factors as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI): (1) cultural awareness, (2) teacher beliefs, (3) school climate, (4) culturally responsive classroom management, (5) home and community support, (6) curriculum and instruction strategies, (7) cultural sensitivity, and (8) teacher efficacy. Further, the statistical differences between teachers' perceptions were explored as related to ethnicity and gender. The relationship between teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI and student achievement as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) Ninth Grade Reading Test was examined. The data were collected from eight secondary campuses in a large urban school district in the southwest United

States: four small learning community campuses and four traditional high school campuses.

This descriptive, correlational study of ninth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs yielded unexpected results when delineated by the campus group in which the teacher was employed. The data found statistically significant differences between Small Learning Community campuses' and Traditional High School campuses' teachers' perceptions of school climate by campus group, by ethnicity and campus group, and finally by gender and campus group. Two additional factors of the CABI reported statistically significant difference when delineated by ethnicity: cultural awareness and teacher efficacy. The relationships between teachers' perceptions of the eight factors and the TAKS for ninth grade reading reported negative correlations for the small learning campus groups' teachers and a mixed results for the traditional high school campus groups' teachers with five negative correlations and three positive correlations for HCS, CI, and CS. In the final analysis, these results countered the expected responses given the research on small learning communities.

DEDICATION

"What you leave behind is not what is engraved in stone monuments, but what is woven into the lives of others." Pericles

To my daughter, Kayla, whose love and support gives my life balance and whose intriguing sense of humor and outlook on life keep me reeling. Over the years, it's been just the two of us. You've always made me proud of you. As you start on your own journey, remember I will always be there for you as you have been there for me. I love you.

And to my dear friend, Dr. Vickie Moon Merchant, who encouraged, read first drafts, nagged, edited, enlightened, reread revisions, browbeat, elevated, edited again, pushed, guided, pulled, and most importantly, supported me through this long process. If you had not formed the CCG's, I would never have started along this path. You are a driving force for education, and I am proud to count you as my friend.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank: Dr. Norvella P. Carter, my dissertation chair, for her vision and guidance through this process; Dr. Stephanie L. Knight, my dissertation co-chair, for sharing my love of mathematics and directing me through statistical analysis, Dr. Patricia J. Larke, for her direct approach to challenging preconceptions and directing my path toward a truer sense of social justice, and Dr. Lauren Cifuentes, for her knowledge and help with integrating my love of technology with my love of teaching.

To my daughter, Kayla, thank you for your patience and understanding. I know it was hard sharing my time, but you are my incentive and my inspiration.

To my parents, thank you. As someone who has been blessed with six parents, I want to thank you for your love and support: my mother, Coy, who taught me to see the world with curious eyes; my dad, Ed, who instilled me with essential problem solving skills; my mom and great friend, Arlene, who provides me with a soft place to fall; my dad, Virgil, who always encouraged me to move forward and was one of the first to suggest I seek this degree; my mom, Donna, who projects persistence; and to my father, Jerry, who taught me to keep my feet a bit above the ground, and my heart skipping after my dreams.

To my brothers and sister-in-laws: Billy, Shane, Jim Pat, Calvin and Connie, and Verl and Debbie, thank you for covering for me with the parents and supporting me with the kids. And yes, I am done now.

To my great compatriots, the flying CCGeese: Ouida Plimper, Vickie Moon Merchant, Kim Livengood, Debbie Vera, Patty Walter, and Corinne Valadez. I know I'm bringing up the rear, but I couldn't have been in a better position. Through long summer sessions made complete with lawn chairs and "me" gifts, carpooling and globetrotting, I've enjoyed it all. Thank you so much!

And finally, to Bailey James, thank you for reminding me that life is short and precious. Even though you're a little fellow yet, you show signs of becoming a great man. I am proud of you and thankful to have you in my life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iii
DEDICATION.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xv
 CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION.....	1
Teachers' Perceptions	5
Cultural Awareness	7
Teacher Beliefs.....	8
Secondary Small Learning Communities	9
Statement of the Problem.....	11
Purpose of the Study.....	12
Significance of the Study.....	13
Research Questions	14
Definitions of Terms.....	14
Assumptions.....	17
Limitations	17
II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	18
Cultural Awareness	22
Teacher Beliefs.....	27
School Climate	30
Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	33
Home and Community Support	36
Curriculum and Instruction	40
Cultural Sensitivity	42
Teacher Efficacy	44
Secondary Small Learning Communities	47
The Nature of Ninth Grade	49

CHAPTER		Page
	Ninth Grade Literacy	51
	Student Achievement.....	53
III	METHODOLOGY	55
	Background	55
	Demographics of the Urban District's Student Population	56
	Demographics of the Urban District's Teacher Population.....	63
	Population	68
	Sample	68
	Procedure	72
	Instrument	73
	Data Collection.....	76
	Research Design.....	77
	Plan for Analysis	77
IV	RESULTS AND ANALYSIS.....	83
	Research Question #1	93
	Research Question #2	165
	Research Question #3	238
V	DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY	243
	Discussion	243
	Research Question #1	245
	Research Question #2	248
	Research Question #3	252
	Recommendations	256
	Implications for Further Research.....	259
	Conclusion	259
	REFERENCES	262
	APPENDIX	283
	VITA	291

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	Page
2.1 Conceptual Framework of Forces to Impact Teachers' Perceptions	21
4.1 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI	96
4.2 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI	97
4.3 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI	100
4.4 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI	101
4.5 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI	102
4.6 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI	103
4.7 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness	107
4.8 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness	108
4.9 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness	109
4.10 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness	110
4.11 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs	114
4.12 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs	115
4.13 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs	116

FIGURE	Page
4.14 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs	117
4.15 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate	121
4.16 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate	122
4.17 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate	123
4.18 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate	124
4.19 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	129
4.20 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	130
4.21 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	131
4.22 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	132
4.23 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home Community Support	136
4.24 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home Community Support	137
4.25 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home and Community Support.....	138
4.26 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home and Community Support.....	139
4.27 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	143

FIGURE	Page
4.28 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	144
4.29 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	145
4.30 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	146
4.31 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Sensitivity	150
4.32 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Sensitivity	151
4.33 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on of Cultural Sensitivity	152
4.34 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Sensitivity	153
4.35 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy	157
4.36 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy	158
4.37 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy	159
4.38 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy	160
4.39 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the CABI's Eight Factors by Campus Group	164
4.40 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups	167
4.41 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Cultural Awareness	171

FIGURE	Page
4.42 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Teacher Beliefs	176
4.43 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on School Climate.....	179
4.44 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management.....	184
4.45 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Home and Community Support	188
4.46 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies.....	191
4.47 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Cultural Sensitivity	194
4.48 Line Graph of Teacher Efficacy Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups	197
4.49 Line Graph of Comparative Medians of African American Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group.....	203
4.50 Line Graph of Comparative Medians of European American Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group.....	204
4.51 Line Graph of Comparative Medians of Other Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group	205
4.52 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups.....	207
4.53 Line Graph of Cultural Awareness Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups.....	210
4.54 Line Graph of Teacher Beliefs Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups.....	213

FIGURE	Page
4.55 Line Graph of School Climate Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups.....	216
4.56 Line Graph of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups	221
4.57 Line Graph of Home and Community Support Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups.....	224
4.58 Line Graph of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups.....	227
4.59 Line Graph of Cultural Sensitivity Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups	230
4.60 Line Graph of Teacher Efficacy Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups	233
4.61 Line Graph of Comparative Means of Female Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group	237
4.62 Line Graph of Comparative Means of Male Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group	238

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
3.1 Student-Teacher Ratios by Campus Type	57
3.2 Ethnicity of Urban School District's Student Population.....	58
3.3 Ethnicity of Urban School District's Secondary Student Population	60
3.4 Gender of Urban School District's Secondary Student Population	62
3.5 Ethnicity of Urban School District's Teacher Population	65
3.6 Gender of Urban School District's Secondary Teacher Population.....	68
3.7 Population of Ninth Grade Teacher Respondents by Campus Group.....	69
3.8 Ethnicity of Sample Population's Ninth Grade Teachers.....	71
3.9 Gender of Sample Population's Ninth Grade Teachers	72
3.10 Reverse Scored CABI Items	79
4.1 Mean Inter-item Correlation for Cultural Awareness	85
4.2 Mean Inter-item Correlation for Teacher Beliefs	86
4.3 Mean Inter-item Correlation for School Climate	87
4.4 Mean Inter-item Correlation for Culturally Responsive Classroom Management.....	88
4.5 Mean Inter-item Correlation for Home and Community Support	89
4.6 Mean Inter-item Correlation for Curriculum and Instructional Strategies.....	90
4.7 Mean Inter-item Correlation for Cultural Sensitivity	92
4.8 Mean Inter-item Correlation for Teacher Efficacy	93
4.9 Mean and Normality of the Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI.....	95

TABLE	Page
4.10 Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups on the CABI	99
4.11 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups	104
4.12 Cultural Awareness Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups	106
4.13 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Cultural Awareness	111
4.14 Teacher Beliefs Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups	113
4.15 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs	119
4.16 School Climate Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups	120
4.17 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of School Climate	126
4.18 Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups	128
4.19 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	133
4.20 Home and Community Support Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups	135
4.21 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Home and Community Support	141
4.22 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	142

TABLE	Page
4.23 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies.....	147
4.24 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity.....	149
4.25 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity	154
4.26 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy	156
4.27 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy	161
4.28 Means and Medians of Ninth Grade Teachers by Campus Groups, Teachers' Perceptions of the Eight Factors as Measured by the CABI	162
4.29 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups	166
4.30 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups.....	168
4.31 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Cultural Awareness	170
4.32 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Cultural Awareness	172
4.33 Interactions between Campus Groups' Ethnicity for Teachers' Perceptions of Cultural Awareness	174
4.34 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs	175
4.35 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs	177

TABLE	Page
4.36 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of School Climate	178
4.37 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of School Climate	181
4.38 Interactions between Campus Groups' Ethnicity for Teachers' Perceptions of School Climate.....	182
4.39 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	183
4.40 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	185
4.41 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Home and Community Support.....	187
4.42 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Home and Community Support	189
4.43 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	190
4.44 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	192
4.45 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity	193
4.46 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity.....	195
4.47 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy.....	196

TABLE	Page
4.48 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy	199
4.49 Interactions between Campus Groups' Ethnicity for Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Efficacy	201
4.50 Medians by Ethnicity for Ninth Grade Teachers by Campus Group, Teachers' Perceptions of the Eight Factors as Measured by the CABI	202
4.51 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups	206
4.52 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups.....	208
4.53 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Cultural Awareness	209
4.54 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Cultural Awareness	211
4.55 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs.....	212
4.56 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs	214
4.57 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of School Climate	215
4.58 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of School Climate	217
4.59 Interactions between Campus Groups' Gender for Teachers' Perceptions of School Climate.....	219

TABLE	Page
4.60 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management.....	220
4.61 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management	222
4.62 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Home and Community Support	223
4.63 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Home and Community Support	225
4.64 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	226
4.65 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies	228
4.66 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity	229
4.67 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity.....	231
4.68 Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy.....	232
4.69 Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy	234
4.70 Comparative Means and Medians for the CABI's Eight Factors Ninth Grade Respondents' Perceptions by Gender and Campus Group.....	236
4.71 Comparative Means of CABI Data by Campus with Achievement Data	240

TABLE	Page
4.72 Spearman's rho Correlation of the Comparative Means of the CABI's Eight Factors with Campus' Ninth Grade Reading TAKS.....	242

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One important key to teachers' success in enabling all students to achieve at high levels was knowledge about these students' families, cultures, and life outside school. Absent this understanding, teachers fail to connect with these students in the ways they did with yesterday's traditional student cohort. (McLaughlin, 1994, p. 9)

"Traditional student cohort" (McLaughlin, 1994, p. 9) referred to the European American, middle-class students seated in the classroom prior to the landmark Supreme Court case, *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* (The Oyez Project, 1954). Prior to this momentous case, the secondary school was divided into two separate institutions: one tailored to the needs and mores of the European American, middle-classed student and the other that should have been designed to meet the needs and culture of the African American student. Missing, however, was equity within the dual campus system (Gay, 2000). African American schools lacked equal education opportunities and financial equity (Banks & Banks, 2004; Kinchloe, Slattery & Steinberg, 2000).

The dual campuses derived from the Supreme Court ruling of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (The Oyez Project, 1896) which established an educational system based on the phrase "separate but equal" (Kinchloe, Slattery & Steinberg, 2000). In *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* (The Oyez Project, 1954) "localities were to act on these new principles with all deliberate speed".

This dissertation follows the style and format of *The Journal of Educational Research*.

Therefore, these landmark cases mandated the end of segregation. Throughout the later part of the twentieth century, desegregation of the schools would be hailed as a means of ending racial stereotypes, promoting positive relationships, and delivering African American students “from racial isolation and oppression” (Gay, 2004, p. 195). However, the development of an achievement gap between European American students and their African American and Hispanic American classmates continues to point to inequities within the school system (Darling-Hammond, 2001).

On January 8, 2002, President George W. Bush signed into law the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) (United States Department of Education, [USDOE], 2008). This legislation highlighted the achievement gap among and between various student populations. NCLB’s purpose, “to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging State academic achievement standards” (USDOE, 2008, ¶2), mandated that all states desirous of retaining federal funding address the educational needs of traditionally underserved students: low performing, poor, minority, migrant or English Language Learners. NCLB (USDOE, 2008) recognized the need for high quality teachers to meet this mandate. However, the law required “highly qualified teachers” to accomplish full state certification, which included completing a bachelor’s degree and possessing an adequate knowledge of content and pedagogy as demonstrated on the required state tests (Exstrom, 2003; Trahan, 2002; USDOE, 2008). Under this law, NCLB (USDOE, 2008) failed to require “highly qualified teachers” to address the cultures and individual differences of students (USDOE, 2008).

In 2010, President Barak Obama established the Race to the Top (The White House, 2010) state grant program with the following call for reform:

America will not succeed in the 21st century unless we do a far better job of educating our sons and daughters... And the race starts today. I am issuing a challenge to our nation's governors and school boards, principals and teachers, businesses and non-profits, parents and students: if you set and enforce rigorous and challenging standards and assessments; if you put outstanding teachers at the front of the classroom; if you turn around failing schools – your state can win a Race to the Top grant that will not only help students outcompete workers around the world, but let them fulfill their God-given potential (§1, The White House, 2010).

These words have been used to inspire educational reforms across the United States.

While the President called for the tools necessary for the production of students able to out distance the completion provided by workers around the world, the challenge lacked the inclusion of the importance of culture as part of the learning process. The key component of the challenge was the call for equity of educational opportunities for all children (The White House, 2010).

Gay (2004) reported pedagogical assumptions of the equity of educational opportunities failed to hold true through the years. With the feminization of education, teaching has developed into a profession sought most often by European American, middle-class, suburban women (Apple, 1985; Kinchloe, Slattery & Steinberg, 2000); thus, leading many to investigate a cultural mismatch in the classroom between the

teachers and students representing diverse populations (Irvine, 2003; Lee, 2001; Villegas, 1988). Gay (2000) prescribed components required to promote culturally responsive pedagogy. Although she called for multicultural professional development, Gay's (2000) prescription failed to mention the impact teachers' perceptions have on the classroom applications of the multicultural professional development.

To meet the needs for professional development to increase the number of culturally responsive teachers, several multicultural researchers provided the tenets of multicultural education (Banks, 2001; Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003; Pang, 2005). Pang (2005) summarized these tenets as follows:

Multicultural Education, as part of a life-giving process of growth and joy, focuses on teaching the whole student with the goal of academic excellence and developing the potential of each student by integrating three critical belief systems: the care theory, education for democracy, and the sociocultural context of human growth and development (p. 222).

As additional professional development programs became available to teachers (Banks & Banks, 2001; Irvine, 2003), Apple (1985) argued against teachers being treated as automatons to deliver prescribed curriculum. Agreeing with Apple, Irvine highlighted the need for teachers of students representing diverse populations to "have open-minded attitudes" (2003, p. 76).

Another obstacle evident in the research attributed teacher beliefs and attitudes as roadblocks to change (Banks, 1993; Bennett, 2001; Boticki, 2004; Cabello & Burstein, 1995; Guskey, 1988). Pajares (1992) and Rokeach (1972) discussed teacher beliefs as

systems created and entrenched from childhood experiences. Further, they described changing teacher beliefs as a process.

Teachers' perceptions of teaching, learning and culture in a pluralistic society began to appear in increasing volume in the educational literature (DenBrok, Levy, Rodriguez, & Wubbels, 2002; Garmon, 2004; Gay 2002; Glazier, 2003; Guerra & Nelson, 2008; Harrington & Hathaway, 1995; Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002; Irvine, 2003; Irwin & Nucci, 2004; Jackson, 2002; Milner, 2005; Neal, McCray, Webb-Johnson, & Bridgest, 2003). Theories expanding upon educational theoretical foundations for this study include these important factors: teachers' perceptions, cultural awareness, teacher beliefs, and secondary small learning communities and have been discussed in the following pages.

Teachers' Perceptions

Mezirow (1996) theorized that adult educational experiences require respondents to become critically aware of their place in the world and how the new learning will affect their belief structure, attitudes and perceptions of the world and their place in it. For the purposes of this study, teachers' perceptions are defined as the values, bias, attitudes, judgments and truth that the teacher acknowledges and investigates consciously. Teachers' perceptions may unconsciously contradict the teachers' belief system. To support the development of teachers' perceptions with regard to cultural implications, Transformative Learning Theory (Mezirow, 1981) posited adult learning as a means of changing their perceptions by "the learning process by which adults come to recognize their culturally induced dependency roles and relationships and the reasons for

them and take action to overcome them” (p. 7) and “systematically examining existing options, building confidence through competence in new roles, acquiring knowledge and skills to implement one’s plans and provisionally trying out new roles and relationships” (p. 20).

Later, tenets of Transformative Learning Theory were developed into a comprehensive overview of how adults learn and change their perceptions of the world (Mezirow, 1996). These tenets were defined as a “general, abstract, and idealized model...seeking agreement on our interpretations and beliefs is central to human communication and the learning process” (Mezirow, 1996, p. 162). Adult learning is defined as action-oriented with constructs for scaffolding knowledge based on prior knowledge integrating with new knowledge. Further, he felt adults construct meaning using all sensory input “through a frame of reference which selectively shapes and delimits perception, cognition, and feelings by predisposing our intentions, expectations, and purposes” (Meizrow, 1996, p. 162). In addition, beliefs are defined as actionable habits that have been tested through the action that defined the belief in perpetual adaptation and conformation. Learning becomes a transformation from existing meaning through action and beliefs to new meaning and perceptions.

The implications of the Transformative Learning Theory for teachers as adult learners amplified the need for multicultural professional development to expand interactions, discussions with and discourse about student cultural experiences to incorporate this knowledge into teachers’ existing schema for habitual classroom implementation (Taylor, 2008).

Cultural Awareness

Defining cultural awareness required compilation from several sources (Gay, 2002; Irvine, 2003; Larke, 1990; Quappe & Cantatore, 2005). “Cultural awareness is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions” Quappe & Cantatore, 2005, ¶1). Larke (1990) focused the attention on teachers “attitudes, beliefs and behaviors toward students of other cultures” (p. 24). Cultural awareness paralleled cultural responsiveness (Gay, 2000). Irvine defined culturally responsiveness as being “aware of and capable of responding to the ways that culture influences the behavioral and mental ecology of the classroom” (2003, p. 67).

While acknowledging that “most teachers want to do the best for all their students” (Gay, 2000, p. 21), few teachers have sufficient knowledge, training and awareness of students’ cultural backgrounds to adequately do so. A teacher lacking cultural awareness negatively impacts student learning by failing to address “behavioral, cultural and learning styles” (Hilliard, 1992, p. 372). Irvine agreed by reporting that “culture is a critical variable in how students learn and how teacher teach” (2003, p. 67).

Therefore, for the purposes of this descriptive, correlational study, cultural awareness is defined as teachers’ acknowledgement of culture as an influence on communication, values, attitudes, beliefs, behaviors and perceptions in the teaching and learning process (Gay, 2002; Irvine, 2003; Larke, 1990; Quappe & Cantatore, 2005).

Teacher Beliefs

As part of the theoretical framework, the difference between belief and knowledge was clarified by Pajares (1992). He posited that “belief is based on evaluation and judgment; knowledge is based on objective fact” (p. 313). As he studied teacher’s larger beliefs systems, he argued that previous research focused on the teachers’ limited educational beliefs often formed in childhood while playing school (Pajares, 1992). Acknowledging the overwhelming impact of such an investigation, Pajares deconstructed teacher beliefs system into “beliefs about” statements (p. 316). Pajares stated that these “beliefs about” statements included a wide range of topics: teacher efficacy, epistemological beliefs, attributions, locus of control, motivation, writing apprehension, math anxiety, self-concept, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (1992, p. 316). Investigation of these “beliefs about” (Pajares, 1992, p. 316) statements resulted in beliefs as judgments and representations of the truth as perceived by teachers.

Further investigation led to how entrenchment of beliefs occurred. He found the earlier a belief was added to an individual’s belief system, the less willing the person would be to change that belief (Pajares, 1992). An example given discussed the belief system built as a small child plays teacher. The child formulated what it meant to be a teacher and how a teacher should behave based on the child’s observations and experiences in a classroom. The cultural influence of these beliefs would be from the child’s own culture and personal perceptions; thereby, negating the integration of other cultures. Discussion of changing beliefs reported the following procedure:

Beliefs are unlikely to be replaced unless they prove unsatisfactory, and they are unlikely to prove unsatisfactory unless they are challenged and one is unable to assimilate them into existing conceptions. When this happens, an anomaly occurs- something that should have been assimilable is resisted. Even then, belief change is the last alternative (Pajares, 1992, p. 321).

Therefore, teacher beliefs are grounded in prior experiences and societal expectations.

Secondary Small Learning Communities

Sergiovanni (1994) theorized Community Theory which viewed schools as a community open to shared ideas and relationships. An additional recommendation included decreasing the number of students per team of teachers and increasing the amount of time spent with the same groups of students (Sergiovanni, 1994). This would provide better opportunities for students to create beneficial relationships with a caring adult (Sergiovanni, 1994). Oxley's research, which built on Sergiovanni's theory, listed the five domains of secondary small learning communities as: (1) building and district support, (2) teaching and learning teams, (3) rigorous, relevant curriculum and instruction, (4) continuous program improvement and (5) inclusive programs (2005, p. 47).

Oxley's study of small learning communities (2004) synthesized the best practices for designing and implementing the five domains. The first domain, building and district support, evolved into the small learning community's team of teachers and administrators working together to adopt "new principles of organizing and governing

staff members and students” (Oxley, 2005, p. 46). This was done to best fit the needs of the students, rather than continue to implement traditional prescriptions or long held policies. Scheduling featured strongly in this definition of building and district support. Teachers were allowed flexibility in working with students as needed, while administrators took on the role of facilitator.

The goal for secondary small learning communities was to increase student achievement through “teaching and learning teams”, the second domain (Oxley, 2005, p. 46). Reducing the number of students, increasing blocks of teaching time, collaboration between interdisciplinary teams, and serving common student populations among the team members created greater opportunities to build student-teacher relationships, peer relationships, and home-school relationships (Oxley, 2005). Teams of teachers share the responsibility for all learning - regardless of discipline focus, high stakes assessments, and “consistent communication” with students and family (Oxley, 2005, p.46).

Rigorous, relevant curriculum and instruction meant interdisciplinary planning for units of study that could evolve into long term projects which affected student learning and the home community. Further collaboration between community partners and small learning communities facilitated interdisciplinary, standards-based, educational projects promoting high expectations for student achievement (Oxley, 2005). The group dynamic within the small learning community allowed students to understand the relevance of their education and to increase the number of connections made between disciplines and real world applications.

As a key component of small learning community, the teaching and learning teams reviewed the achievement gap between student populations, inclusion of special populations of students, such as special education and English Language Learners (Oxley, 2005). Peer collaboration as well as opportunities for extended time with teachers and community partners increased the learning for all students as well as providing needed social skills for all the students.

Oxley's (2005) study reported small learning communities' inclusion of these five domains worked to continuously improve their program, thus increasing the gains in student achievement. The key to the small learning community appeared to be the collaboration of the principle stakeholders in creating change that positively affected students' lives. Oxley (2005) called for specialized professional development for the teaching and learning teams along with the administrators for each small learning community. A lack of literature on the influences of the teacher beliefs and cultural awareness on small learning communities and its possible impact on student achievement was discovered.

Statement of the Problem

Researchers have primarily focused on preservice and inservice teachers' perceptions of multicultural tenets of elementary classrooms (Irvine, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 1995a, 1998; Love & Krueger, 2007). Yet a dearth of research focusing on multicultural tenets existed as applied to the high school classrooms and the perceptions of secondary inservice teachers. Therefore, this descriptive, correlational study focused attention on ninth grade teachers' perceptions of the eight factors of the Cultural

Awareness and Beliefs Inventory. Although previous studies have reviewed the impact of teachers' demographics and gender in the lower grades (Acker, 2006; Milner & Hoy, 2003; Warren, 2002), a void investigating the differences between small learning community and traditional high school campuses' ninth grade teachers' perceptions existed based on demographics of teachers' ethnicity and gender on cultural awareness, teacher beliefs, school climate, culturally responsive classroom management, home and community support, curriculum and instruction strategies, cultural sensitivity, and teacher efficacy. Finally, a major component of NCLB (USDOE, 2008) surrounded assessment and student achievement. In Texas, student achievement has been measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2006). Little was currently known of the effects of secondary teacher perceptions' as it correlated to student achievement as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills for ninth grade reading.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive, correlational study was to examine ninth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness, teacher beliefs, school climate, culturally responsive classroom management, home and community support, curriculum and instruction strategies, cultural sensitivity, and teacher efficacy as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Descriptive statistical data evaluated the differences between teachers' perceptions based on two campus groups: ninth grade teachers of small learning community and ninth grade teachers of traditional high school campuses. Demographics were reviewed and tested

for significant differences between those campus groups in relation to teachers' ethnicity and gender. Further, correlation among and between data collected from these campus groups was examined to ascertain possible trends based upon correlation coefficients of teachers' perceptions and student achievement as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills ninth grade reading exam.

Significance of the Study

Research focusing on multicultural tenets as applied to secondary classroom teachers and their perceptions is scarce. As prescribed by *Race to the Top* (The White House, 2010) addressing the student achievement is crucial, educators should refer to the literature to determine the affect teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness, teacher beliefs, school climate, culturally responsive classroom management, home and community support, curriculum and instruction strategies, cultural sensitivity, and teacher efficacy have on their instruction. Further, the significance of this study included providing insight to educators on the impact of teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and teacher beliefs on student achievement as well as instruction and learning. Additionally, with the goal of increasing the quality of teaching and learning in large urban school districts, and the evaluation of the small learning community's impact on student achievement compared to that of tradition high school campuses may assist administrators in reorganizing secondary schools for the benefit of all learners.

Research Questions

Research Question #1:

What are the differences by campus types (small learning community campus and traditional high school campus) of ninth grade teachers' cultural awareness and teacher beliefs perceptions?

Research Question #2:

What are the differences by campus types of the eight factors of the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory by teachers' ethnicity or teachers' gender?

Research Question #3:

What is the relationship between ninth grade students' reading TAKS scores and the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs of the ninth grade teachers perceptions by campus type?

Definitions of Terms

Archival Data: "Existing sources of data are those items currently available in the files or archives of the school or of individual staff members" (Calhoun, 1994, p. 53).

Campus Group: One of two groups of ninth grade teachers determined by the type of campus that employed them: Small Learning Community or Traditional High School.

Cultural Awareness: Teachers' acknowledgement of culture as an influence of communication, values, attitudes, beliefs, behaviors and perceptions in the teaching and learning process (Gay, 2002; Irvine, 2003; Larke, 1990; Quappe & Cantatore, 2005). A factor measured by the CABI.

Cultural Sensitivity: The teacher's acknowledgment of the student's culture as a factor affecting his/her view, beliefs, behavior and learning style (Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003). A factor measured by the CABI.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management: 1) a caring attitude, 2) establishing assertiveness and authority, 3) establishing congruent communication processes, and 4) demanding effort (D. Brown, 2004). A factor measured by the CABI.

Curriculum and Instruction: Curriculum development must include a multicultural lens that encompasses content knowledge, instructional strategies, and "a knowledge base about ethnic and cultural diversity" combined with an ability to create student activities that reflected all of these components (Gay, 2000, p. 108). A factor measured by the CABI.

Home and Community Support: The "funds of knowledge" (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992) provided by a students' life outside the classroom as well as the adults and experiences that influence a student's academic career (Gutman & McLoyd, 2000; Moll, et al., 1992; Simon, 2000). A factor measured by the CABI.

Ninth Grade Literacy: The reading fluency, comprehension skills, vocabulary development and the content area application of reading in all areas of the high school curriculum.

School Climate: "School Climate reflects the physical and psychological aspects of the school that are more susceptible to change and that provide the preconditions

necessary for teacher and learning to take place” (Tableman & Herron, 2004, p. 2). A factor measured by the CABI.

Small Learning Community Campus: A campus in the large urban public school district that contains only grade 9 students. In this study, our campuses have been established to correspond with the theory supporting small learning communities: teams of teachers, common administrative team, and greater opportunities for student-teacher interactions (Oxley, 2005).

Teacher Beliefs: The unconscious values, bias, attitudes, judgments and truth of an individual teacher about “schooling, teaching, learning and students” (Pajares, 1992, p. 315). A factor measured by the CABI.

Teacher Efficacy: “the extent to which teachers believe that they have the capacity to affect student performance” (Ashton, 1984, p 28). A factor measured by the CABI.

Teachers’ Perceptions: Values, bias, attitudes, judgments and truths that the teacher acknowledges and investigates consciously. Teachers’ perceptions may unconsciously contradict the teachers’ belief system.

Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS): State assessment to meet NCLB mandates. In ninth grade, students are assessed in Reading and Mathematics using the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills. For the purposes of this study, only the reading scores will be examined.

Traditional High School Campus: One of four campuses in the large urban public school district that contains grades 9, 10, 11, and 12 students. In this district on

these four campuses, ninth grade students on traditional high school campuses have been retained since they were unsuccessful at the small learning community campus. Each of the traditional high school campuses receives students from the small learning community campuses of the same name.

Assumptions

1. The Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory elicited honest, unbiased responses of the respondents in an urban school district in the southwestern United States.

Limitations

1. Data were collected in one urban school district in southwestern region of the United States.
2. Disparity exists between the sample sizes of the respondents of the two campus groups.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Students told us ‘the way teachers treat you as a student—or as a person actually,’ counted more than any other factor in the school setting in determining their attachment to the school, their commitment to the school’s goals and, by extension, the academic future they imagined for themselves. (McLaughlin, 1994, p. 9)

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) (USDOE, 2008) increased the accountability of high school campuses. NCLB (USDOE, 2008) mandated the states’ department of education develop reporting systems requirements, or Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). One of the AYP components in Texas has been the school districts’ dropout rate, which compels high school campuses to increase the number of students graduating (USDOE, 2008). The quote from McLaughlin (1994) illustrates the high school’s goal of staying in school as it parallels with student-teacher relationships.

Student-teacher relationships depend upon the student’s perceptions of their teacher’s perceptions of themselves and their culture. Tan (2001) investigated how this dynamic impacted student dropout rates. Tan’s (2001) qualitative study, *“I Want My Teachers To Like Me,”* contained positive declarations from students regarding the impact of their teachers’ perceptions and the role of culturally responsiveness in the students’ decisions to remain in school. Similar to the findings of Delpit (1995), the students responded positively to teachers who demanded the students’ best work, while respecting them as human beings (Tan, 2001).

Respect and high expectations were companion pieces of academically successful students (Delpit, 1995; Tan, 2001). Conversely, teachers' perceptions of students negatively colored the teachers' explanations for student behavior in the research of others (DenBrok, Levy, Rodriguez & Wubbels, 2002; Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002; Irwin & Nucci, 2004; Jackson, 2002; Neal et al., 2003; Sauter, 1994). Teachers' lack of cultural awareness led to teacher interpretations of behaviors and actions of African American and Hispanic American students as personal characteristics. Further, the teachers in these studies held the students responsible for their actions. However, teacher interpretations of the same types of behaviors and actions of European American students were perceived to be environmental; thus the student could not be held responsible for his or her own actions (Irwin & Nucci, 2004; Jackson, 2002).

The results of these studies represented possible directives for the integration of multicultural tenets into the professional development of the classroom teacher. Ribiero (2003) found that multicultural professional development impacted teachers' perceptions of multiculturalism more than teachers without the multicultural professional development. Garmon (2004) admonished the one shot multiculturalism course as "insufficient to counteract preexisting attitudes and beliefs" (p. 211). However, E. L. Brown (2004a) contradicted these findings with the caveat "this study did not indicate whether increases in cultural diversity awareness could be sustained over time" (p. 137). The professional development provided to teachers in the study consisted of long term, extensive training programs (E. L. Brown, 2004a). Whereas, J. Nieto's (2006) "cultural plunge" fell between Garmon (2004) and E. L. Brown (2004a). This study required

respondents to be immersed in a cultural experience for at least one hour during four different plunges. These cultural experiences were required for completion of the treatment. J. Nieto's findings reported increased sensitivity to "social and cultural realities, to their own values and biases, and to the students of today's and tomorrow's classrooms" (2006, p. 83). The combined results of these studies focused attention on the need to mold and influence teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and teacher beliefs.

The conceptual framework for this descriptive, correlational study investigated ninth grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and Teacher beliefs. Partnered with these two factors, small learning communities' theory was added using the hypothesis of Oxley (2005) and Irvine (2003) to correlate its impact on student achievement. The interactions of these factors would yield an evolving circle of influence controlled by underlying teachers' perceptions (see Figure 2.1). As each factor changes, the subsequent factor would be affected through the incorporation of new knowledge and evolving belief structures (K. M. Brown, 2005; Mezirow, 1981, 1996). For instance, as cultural awareness increased, teacher beliefs are positively changed; thus affecting classroom instruction (Gay, 2000; Pajares, 1992). With this cultural awareness of the teacher and his or her beliefs affecting instruction, the small learning communities would enable additional opportunities for positive student-teacher relationships since the teacher has gained an expanded "multicultural lens" (Bennett, 2001). Positive student-teacher relationships would provide additional opportunities for the teacher's increased cultural awareness (Oxley, 2004, 2005), and the cycle expands and reinitiates.

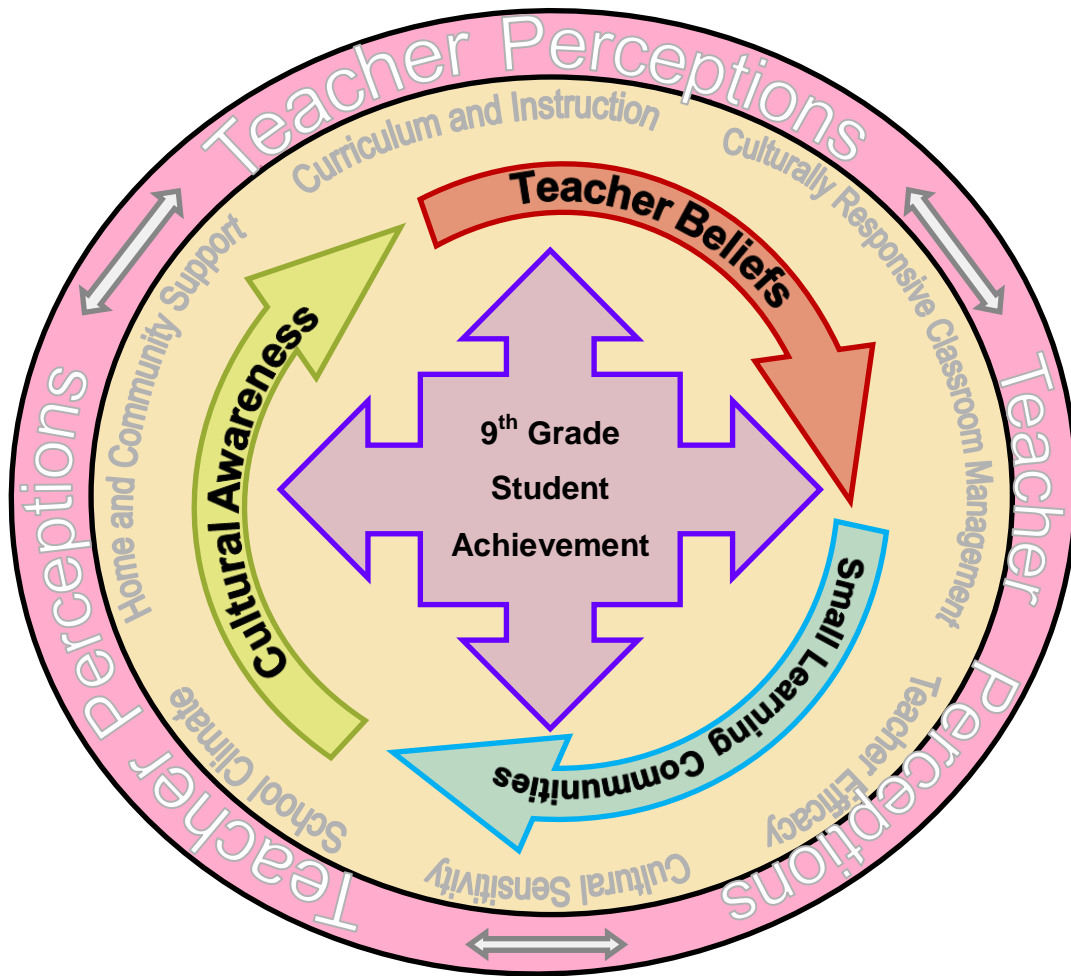


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework of Forces to Impact Teachers' Perceptions

The first step in this conceptual framework is dependent on understanding and identifying teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness, teacher beliefs, school climate, culturally responsive classroom management, home and community support, curriculum and instruction strategies, cultural sensitivity, and teacher efficacy. Webb-Johnson and Carter (2005) developed an instrument, the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory

(CABI), to measure teachers' perceptions of eight factors: : (1) cultural awareness (CA), (2) teacher beliefs (TB), (3) school climate (SC), (4) culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM), (5) home and community support (HCS), (6) curriculum and instruction strategies (CI), (7) cultural sensitivity (CS), and (8) teacher efficacy (TE).

Cultural Awareness

If teachers are to increase learning opportunities for all students, they must be knowledgeable about the social and cultural contexts of teaching and learning (Banks, Cookson, Gay, Hawley, Irvine, Nieto, Schofield & Stephan, 2001, p. 197).

Culture has been defined as “the ideations, symbols, behaviors, values, and beliefs that are shared by a human group; a group’s program for survival and adaptation to its environment” (Banks & Banks, 2004, p. 449). In the classroom, teachers mistakenly conferred cultural awareness (CA) to mean celebrating the holidays and heroes of other cultures as a means of implementing multicultural education (Banks, 2001). Another approach by teachers included the failure to “see color” (Schofield, 2004). Sleeter (2001) investigated the research methods that would help European American teachers gain CA. This research found that teacher preparation programs as well as the majority of teacher candidates are predominantly European American. This “overwhelming presence of whiteness” (Sleeter, 2001, p. 101) required pre-service teachers to have a community-based immersion experience.

However, CA has been defined as “the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions” (Quappe & Cantatore, 2005). This definition of CA encourages teachers to be aware of the differences. CA is the antithesis of the colorblind perspective as the colorblind perspective removes the influence of race and ethnicity negating its positive implications for the education of diverse populations and reinforcing racism and stereotypes (Schofield, 2004). Schofield’s findings yielded three positive statements:

First, the education system needs to make a concerted effort to be responsive to our society’s diversity in planning curriculum, in making staffing choices, and in thinking about how best to serve students.

Second, schools need to help students and teacher see that groups are composed of individuals with their own unique characteristics who may be both similar to and different from those in both their in-group and in out-groups, which should help undercut the tendency to stereotype and to see group membership as defining an individual’s characteristics.

Finally, schools should provide students with opportunities to build meaningful shared identities as members of the school, the community, and the nation that complement and supplement, rather than replace or undermine, the identities as members of specific social groups (2004, p. 281).

Given the Schofield directives, research that focused on increasing teachers' CA described measures to meet these directives. (DePalma, Rego & Moledo, 2006, Rucker, 2001).

Cultural awareness as a factor of responsiveness to diversity for the purposes of curriculum planning coincided with the research of Turner (2007). A qualitative study of twenty preservice teachers in an elementary reading college course, Turner (2007) measured the preservice teachers' concept of culturally responsive literacy teaching after two semesters in the researcher's classes on CA and literacy. The findings presented contradictory results based on the locus of control of the preservice teacher: culturally responsive teaching and culturally neutral classroom management. Parental involvement responses indicated the preservice teachers were unaware how to integrate parents into their classroom. Preservice teachers acknowledged the students' diversity in their belief statements and planned to incorporate that diversity into the classroom instruction, yet reverted back to the more traditional teacher driven classroom management models that negated the influences of culture and described their perceived obstacles to successful parental involvement. Turner (2007) proposed addressing the two "blind spots" (p. 16) in the literacy classroom alleviating the stress of new inservice teachers.

Kidd, Sanchez and Thorp (2004) created a course for preservice teachers to collect the family stories of students from different backgrounds. This qualitative study sent the preservice teachers forth with the directive to listen and, rather than prepare questions in advance, ask the questions that naturally occurred in the conversation. The preservice teachers found the stories they gathered incorporated similarities to and

differences from their own culture. Increased CA prompted the preservice teachers to reexamine their pedagogical beliefs about the classroom and to incorporate culturally responsive teaching into their teaching practices. Increased CA centered on family interactions gave the preservice teachers “a greater appreciation of cultures different from their own and were able to use their heightened awareness to respond more appropriately to the cultural diversity within their classrooms” (Kidd, Sanchez & Thorp, 2004, p. 71).

Incorporating CA as a factor, Schofield’s (2004) second directive advocated teachers viewing students as individuals with unique characteristics. In a study aimed at meeting this directive, “La Red Magica” (Depalma, Rego & Moledo, 2006), a University of Delaware teacher education program, immersed preservice teachers in the urban communities they would eventually teach. The preservice teachers designed and implemented service learning projects with elementary school students outside of the school setting. These projects, reported as case studies, allowed preservice teachers opportunities to see children from diverse backgrounds without the preconceptions of success or failure as defined by classroom achievement. Results included reflective statements of new CA, such as: “we also learned new things about the children, i.e. we learned about how some the children actually had farms in Mexico and where they experienced planting some things as well” (2006, p. 336) and “I was at his [the student’s] house, which was an experience in itself...I truly felt like a minority” (2006, p. 334-5).

Although the authors admitted the lack of proof that such experiences would withstand the institutionalization of school with its innate replication of the status quo, Depalma, Rego and Moledo expressed the hope that these positive experiences with children would generate a “sense of discomfort” when confronted with “business as usual of institutional schooling” (2006, p. 337)

Gay and Kirkland provided preservice teachers with the multicultural instructional tools required to incorporate “reflection and critical consciousness” (2003, p. 186). As professors of typical preservice teachers, predominantly European American and female, Gay and Kirkland mirrored Depalma, Rego and Moledo (2006) in the goal of CA as a means of rejecting the status quo in the classroom and teaching teachers to critically analyze their professional practices with diverse populations.

Gayle-Evans and Michael (2006) investigated the effectiveness of the teacher education training of CA and multicultural tenets for preservice teachers in a university that required fifteen hours of field experience in a diverse classroom. Using an experimental design, the researchers created a pre-test/post-test model featuring an instrument featuring mixed methods data. The population contained 32 preservice teachers. The comparison of pre-test responses to post-test responses yielded evidence of great CA and the impact of inclusion of the multicultural education tenets including social justice, prejudice reduction, and culturally relevant pedagogy (Gayle-Evans & Michael, 2006). The participants in Gayle-Evans and Michael’s (2006) study indicated their change in the teachers’ belief of teachers as active facilitators for change in the classroom.

Teacher Beliefs

Educational psychology does not always accord its constructs such precision, and so defining beliefs is at best a game of player's choice. They travel in disguise and often under alias-attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature (Pajares, 1992, p. 309).

For the purposes of this study and as one of the factors of the CABI (Roberts-Walter, 2007), teacher beliefs (TB) have been defined as the unconscious values, bias, attitudes, judgments and truth of an individual teacher about “schooling, teaching, learning and students” (Pajares, 1992, p. 315). In teacher education, multicultural education courses incorporate new knowledge about culture and students to expand and influence TB (Banks, 2001; Brown, E. L., 2004b; Ribiero, 2006). Pajares (1992) reported that conflicts between a teacher’s beliefs and elements of the cognitive domain resulted in the teacher’s confusion and generated an inability to distinguish the appropriate actions and behaviors to exhibit. The incongruity of these types of experiences by teachers created inequitable educational opportunities for diverse student populations (Cooper, 1979; Cooper & Good, 1983; Delpit, 1995; Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003).

Exploring the incongruity within teachers' beliefs systems, Siwatsu (2006) surveyed 275 Midwestern preservice teachers using two different instruments: Culturally Responsive Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and Culturally Responsive Teacher Outcome Expectancy Scale. In this quantitative study, the two scales investigated respondents self-reported beliefs about their teacher efficacy, the belief in one's own ability to be effective in the learning of a child, (Bandura, 1993, 1997; Haberman, 1991, 1995; Howard, 1995) and teacher expectations, "inferences that teachers make about the future academic achievement of students" (Cotton, 1989, ¶8; Cooper & Good, 1983).

Ninety-three percent of the preservice teachers were European American. The findings discussed inverses of beliefs within the two scales. The respondents' indicated strong support of multicultural strategies benefits to the classroom, but coupled it with their lack of confidence in their ability to implement these strategies or communicate effectively with parents of English Language Learners (Siwatsu, 2006). The author hypothesized that this contradiction could be attributed to the respondents' lack of interaction with other ethnic groups.

Unlike preservice teachers, in-service teachers of urban classrooms deal with diverse populations daily. Tournaki and Podell (2005) conducted a mixed method study using a 30 item Teacher Efficacy scale measuring personal efficacy and Teacher Efficacy with 32 versions of the same case study modified to represent variables of reading achievement, gender, attentiveness and behavior (p. 301). Discussion of the findings concluded that teachers with students, who were already academically successful, predict they would be successful in their classrooms. Conversely, if students

were academically unsuccessful, the teachers' predictions for academic success were higher if there failed to be an identified cause for the failure, yet the predictions for academic success remained below the levels predicted for the academically successful.

When behavior was factored in as a variable, teacher efficacy became a product of student achievement: students, who read on grade level but misbehaved, were rated positively; and students without behavior problems, but who read below grade level, were rated negatively in regard to teachers' beliefs in their own ability to help these students (Tournaki & Podell, 2005). Reporting this complex situation as simply as possible, teachers' sense of personal efficacy positively impacted their predictions of student academic success, yet these predictions applied mainly to female, academically successful, attentive students. Although Tournaki and Podell (2005) failed to include teacher ethnicity in their study, some diversity in the teacher's ethnicity could be implied given the study was conducted in the New York metropolitan area. In the final analysis, these teachers believed themselves to be efficacious at various levels and situations, yet several lacked the confidence to carry their personal efficacy into the difficult areas of the urban school and student achievement.

S. Nieto (1999) discussed student-teacher relationships as transformational for TB. TB about diversity, as influences on student-teacher relationships, generated an unexpected result in the work Boticki (2004). Boticki's (2004) mixed methods study administered three scales to review the dynamic of preservice teachers working as tutors with elementary students. The three scales investigated (1) professional beliefs about diversity, (2) personal beliefs about diversity, and (3) student-teacher relationship

quality. In addition to these three quantitative measures, qualitative observation data of student-teacher interactions were conducted (Boticki, 2004). Using S. Nieto's (1999) definition of caring to represent TB of multicultural understanding, Boticki (2004) reported cultural sensitivity and positive TB about diversity within the classroom positively affected relationships of European American preservice teachers with their African American students. These same TB expanded to include the European American students from different backgrounds as well.

Witcher, Onuegbuzie, Collins, Witcher, Minor and James (2002) took TB into the realm of instructional pedagogy and posited that TB drive teacher efficacy beliefs. In the quantitative study of 70 preservice teachers including their demographic data and educational ambitions, the researchers found that their study indicated higher levels of teacher efficacy with the preservice teachers than comparison group of inservice teachers from their literature review (Witcher, et al., 2002). Contrary to the positive findings, the researchers warned of negative implications of the possibly overly high TB. Pointing to the possibility of the teachers' beliefs of their efficacy as being inflated and unrealistic, the researchers suggested that such beliefs could be a contributing factor to the high rate of new teachers who are leaving the profession as well as an indication that teacher education should include additional opportunities for preservice teachers to observe real classrooms. (Witcher, et al., 2002).

School Climate

School environments vary greatly. Whereas some schools feel friendly, inviting, and supportive, others feel exclusionary, unwelcoming, and even

unsafe. The feelings and attitudes that are elicited by a school's environment are referred to as School Climate (Loukas, 2007, ¶1).

Using the Loukas' definition of school climate, "the feelings and attitudes that are elicited by a school's environment" (2007, ¶1), the need became the investigation of cultural awareness and teacher beliefs impact on school climate. Recent research has also been delving into the part school climate plays on student achievement (Brown, & Medway, 2007; Loukas, 2007; Simon, 2000).

Brown and Medway (2007) examined the factors contributing to the success of a South Carolina school. The school and teachers were exceptionally effective with African American elementary students. The school served 600 children predominately African American, low socioeconomic status students. The teachers were given two surveys, one measuring "teachers' perceptions of school climate and the second assessed practices used in classrooms" (Brown & Medway, 2007, p. 532). The results of this mixed methods study yielded several themes:

- a) Teachers felt a sense of cohesiveness and collegiality,
- b) Instructional strategies incorporating hands-on experiences,
- c) All children can learn,
- d) Teachers are responsible to communicate to students that they will succeed,
- e) Teachers had high student expectations,
- f) Teachers valued parental input and involvement and created ways to facilitate home-school communication,

- g) A need for teacher education training programs to restructure themselves and include coursework and experiences specific to teaching and educating minority students,
- h) Teachers prioritized integrating culture and an appreciation of multiculturalism into the existing curriculum (Brown & Medway, 2007, p. 536-538).

These themes were repeated by Perkins (2008) in the Council of Urban Boards of Education (CUBE). CUBE surveyed 20 school districts from 16 states in a quantitative study of school climate. Instead of district personnel, parents were surveyed regarding safety, parental involvement, expectations for achievement, trust and respect, bullying, community welfare and the importance of race. The final analysis concluded: “A safe and welcoming learning climate is a prerequisite to high student achievement” (Perkins, 2008, p. 4).

Tableman and Herron’s definition of school climate has been adapted for this study: “school climate reflects the physical and psychological aspects of the school that are more susceptible to change and that provide the preconditions necessary for teacher and learning to take place” (2004, p. 2). Tableman and Herron’s (2004) article included school culture as a major contributing factor to student achievement in partnership with school climate. This meta-analysis discussed several studies findings of school climate’s affect on student achievement. The eight themes from Brown and Medway (2007) as well as the CUBE research were duplicated in Tableman and Herron (2004). School climate affects student achievement when partnered with high expectations,

teacher who assume responsibility for learning, strong parental involvement, and incorporation of home culture into the learning process (Brown & Medway, 2007; Marshall, 2008; Perkins, 2008; Tableman & Herron, 2004).

In 2009, Cohen, McCabe, Michelli and Pickeral consolidated historical data on school climate with the policies and practices instituted by the school governing bodies. The final analysis found a gap between the research and the policies and practices. The researchers discussed this gap as “socially unjust and a violation of children’s human rights” (Cohen, et al., 2009, p. 181). In an effort to provide direction for closing the gap, the researchers suggested educators include parents and students in making the school experience more engaging, relevant and fun (Cohen, et al., 2009, p. 181).

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Whatever the reasons for children’s behavior—whether poverty, personality, a handicapping condition, a dysfunctional home, or an abusive environment— classroom teachers are responsible for managing children, seeing that they work together in a confined space for long periods, and ensuring that they learn (Haberman, 1995, p. 22).

Traditionally, classroom management focused on the teacher’s ability to maintain an orderly environment which supported student learning (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Hubbard, 2005). Current research reported that the traditional classroom management fails to address the culture of students representing diverse populations in today’s classroom. Although European Americans and African Americans students accrued disciplinary files in relative equal numbers, the number of disciplinary referrals for

African American students, especially adolescent males, increased dramatically over their European American counterparts (Gregory & Mosely, 2004; Gregory & Weinstein, 2007; Monroe & Obidah, 2004; Monroe, 2005a, 2005b, Townsend, 2000). The changing population of the classroom requires a change in the management style of classroom teachers (Weinstein, Curran & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003).

To enact the change, the term, culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM), appeared in the research-based literature after the recent turn of the century (Brown, D. F., 2004; Hubbard, 2005; Townsend & Webb-Johnson, 2000; Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke & Curran, 2004). For years, researchers have advocated that teachers incorporate Cultural Sensitivity and awareness in all aspects of education (Banks & Banks, 2001; Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003).

Weinstein, Curran and Tomlinson-Clarke (2003) advocated the depth of commitment needed to effectively create a CRCM system:

Being a culturally responsive classroom manager means more than learning a few words in a student's native language or creating a bulletin board that highlights students' countries of origin. It means being willing to reflect on the ways that classroom management decisions promote or obstruct students' access to learning. Culturally responsive classroom management is a frame of mind as much as a set of strategies or practices (p. 275).

Frame of mind is unique to each teacher, yet the tenets of CRCM were defined as: a) a caring attitude, b) establishing assertiveness and authority, c) establishing congruent

communication processes, and d) demanding effort (Brown, D. F., 2004). Qualitative research by D. F. Brown (2003) followed thirteen secondary teachers through the phases of CRCM providing classroom examples of mutual respect, high expectations for classroom behavior, a caring learning environment and “congruent communication processes” (p. 282). Brown’s research reinforced urban adolescents’ need for a personal connection with a caring adult. The teachers in this study stressed the “importance and value of providing individualized attention” through their relationships with their students (Brown, D. F., 2003, p. 275).

Teacher-student relationships supplanted punitive approaches to classroom management in CRCM. Historically defined as behavior modification, punitive approaches to classroom management ended with African American students removal from the classroom to administrative punishments (Monroe, 2005b). Adverse to such punitive approaches, Haberman (1993) discussed STAR teachers’ aversion to viewing children as “animals” (p. 7) capable of being modified or to viewing themselves as “instruments of punishment” (p. 6). Haberman credited these views to STAR teachers’ belief that punishment proved ineffective and often served to escalate negative behaviors. Haberman’s STAR teachers advocated gentle teaching in a violent society. The following work of Monroe and Obidah (2004) discussed the recent evolution of the pedagogical tools that have formed CRCM which can be seen as exemplary of Haberman’s gentle teaching.

Home and Community Support

In order for teachers to make shifts in their assumptions and beliefs about the children they teach, they must also learn to appreciate the assets of the community in which their students live (Warren, 2002, p. 114).

Gutman and McLod (2000) delved into these assets by examining the managerial role African American parents played in their children's education in and out of the school system. This qualitative study was part of a longitudinal study of early adolescence in Michigan (Gutman & McLoyd, 2000). The respondents were chosen from a school district with students from low socioeconomic status (84 percent) and African American ethnicity (42 percent) (Gutman & McLoyd, 2000, p. 7). The resulting discussion centered on the different parenting skills that yielded high achievers and low achievers. Parents of high achievers prioritized school and education, interacted positively with their child, visited the school regularly, and encouraged their child to participate in extracurricular activities including sports, church, art and music programs, and extra academic classes, engaged in active planning of activities to develop "positive peer relationships and learn social values" (Gutman & McLoyd, 2000, p. 15). Parents of high achievers taught their children the importance of goal setting and goal completion.

In contrast, the parents of low achievers expressed a distrust of the school system; many with corroborating examples of school failure to meet their child's needs (Gutman & McLoyd, 2000). These parents lacked specific plans for attaining academic success for their children and failed to encourage their children to engage in community involvement such as extracurricular activities and the church. However, these parents

expressed a desire for their child to be successful in school and valued education (Gutman & McLoyd, 2000). Expressing a desire to work with the school for the benefit of their child, many parents of low achievers experiences with school personnel proved detrimental to their child and the trust the parents could put in the school system. These experiences colored African American parents views of their role in the school. In contrast, parents of high achieving African American students viewed themselves as partners with school personnel working to ensure a positive outcome for their children.

Moll, Amanti, Neff and Gonzalez's (1992) qualitative study investigated the home and community influences of Hispanic American families in Arizona. The goal of this study was to integrate their findings into innovative classroom strategies. Moll et al. (1992) found two key relationships that would be used to impact the classroom relationships. The first discussed respondents' "funds of knowledge" (Moll, et al., 1992, p. 132) as the "historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential for household or individual functioning and well-being" (Moll, et al., 1992, p. 133). The Hispanic American households studied demonstrated how the "funds of knowledge" contributed to their ability to deal with change and economic diversity. Moll, et al. (1992) discussed the importance of the home and community members' relationship with the student. These home and community members interacted with the students in several aspects of the child's life allowing them to see the student as a whole person. This differed from the one dimensional view of most classroom teachers.

The second key relationship reviewed the student's interaction with home and community members "reciprocity" aspects the classroom lacks (Moll, et al., 1992, p.

134). Students, in the home and community, were active respondents, engaged and responsible for household and community functioning. Unlike in the classroom where students were seen as passive recipients, students at home and in the community were expected to contribute the family and community through service and by identifying and completing activities that the student identified as necessary for the situation (Moll, et al., 1992). Implications for the classroom included changing the teaching strategies to engage students as active respondents and to encourage teachers to learn more about their students; thereby enabling them to see their student as a whole person (Moll, et al., 1992).

Simon (2000) changed the discussion by moving away from parental involvement to school-family-community partnerships. Simon's (2000) goal was to view the overlapping spheres of influence that a child encounters in all aspects of their life and the impact on their education. To accomplish this goal, Simon (2000) surveyed students, administrators and parents using the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS) surveys. The NELS survey followed cohorts of students from eighth grade through high school, college and into careers. For the purposes of Simon's study (2001), the data from surveys taken at grades eight, ten and twelve. The final analysis found that the activities designed by high school personnel to actively "solicit and focus families' involvement" (Simon, 2000, p. 233) pose a greater predictor of family involvement than socioeconomic status, ethnicity, or family structures.

Another predictor of family involvement might point to the level of communication between the family and the teacher. Joshi, Eberly, and Konzal (2005)

investigated teachers' perceptions of communication with the families of students from diverse populations. Their quantitative study of predominantly European American, preschool teachers answered a three part questionnaire that reported the respondents' perceptions of the cultural components that influenced academic success (Joshi, et al., 2005). The respondents reasoned parents were uninvolved with school due to monetary commitments, language difficulties and failure to understand school culture (Joshi, et al., 2005). Joshi, et al. (2005) indicated a disparity in the teachers' perceptions of the cultural components that influenced academic success and the cultural components used in the classroom.

Conversely, Williams and Baber (2007) gave voice to African American parents in their research on home and community support. In a qualitative case study, four African American parents reported on the cultural awareness of the school personnel. The findings provided four themes: "the absence of culturally competent teachers of color, inappropriate identification and placement of African American children in special education systems, disenfranchisement of African American parents, and distrust of the system" (Williams & Baber, 2007, p. 5). The researchers concluded their study with a call for educators to incorporate "genuine cultural reciprocity" in home and community relationships (Williams & Baber, 2007, p. 9).

Synthesizing the research, this study will define home and community support as the "funds of knowledge" (Moll, et al., 1992) provided by a student's life outside the classroom as well as the adults and experiences that influence a student's academic career (Gutman & Medway, 2000; Moll, et al., 1992; Simon, 2000).

Curriculum and Instruction

Acquiring detailed factual information about the cultural particularities of specific ethnic groups (e.g., African, Asian, Latino, and Native American)... is needed to make schooling more interesting and stimulating for, representative of, and responsive to ethnically diverse students (Gay, 2002, p. 107).

A factor of the CABI (Roberts-Walter, 2007), curriculum and instruction has been defined for this study as: curriculum development that must include a multicultural lens that encompasses content knowledge, instructional strategies, and “a knowledge base about ethnic and cultural diversity” combined with an ability to create student activities that reflected all of these components (Gay, 2000, p. 108). Allen and Boykin (1992) discussed the historical development of educational attainment and needs of the African American population in schools. The researchers found two key components that would impact the development of Gay’s culturally responsive pedagogy theory (2000): “instructional settings designed around the sociocultural integrity of black children and cooperative learning” (Allen & Boykin, p. 590). The researchers call for integration of culture and teaching strategies in the early grades would provide better opportunities for academic success in later grades foreshadows the research that needs to be done in the secondary grades.

Gay’s definition of teaching, “matching instructional techniques to the learning styles of diverse students” (2002, p. 112) established the basis of the culturally responsive pedagogy. Curriculum development must include a multicultural lens that

encompasses content knowledge, instructional strategies, and “a knowledge base about ethnic and cultural diversity” (p. 108) combined with an ability to create student activities that reflected all of these components. Gay (2000) prescribed components required to promote culturally responsive pedagogy:

- a) Staff development to acquire knowledge of ethnic diversity and culturally responsive teaching;
- b) Availability of necessary instructional materials;
- c) Systematic ways in which teachers can receive constructive feedback on their efforts and recognition for their accomplishments in implementing culturally responsive teaching;
- d) Activities in other aspects of the educational enterprise, such as administration, counseling, curriculum design, performance evaluation, and extracurricular activities comparable to culturally responsive classroom teaching;
- e) Clearly defined techniques for meeting the opposition that culturally diverse people and programs may encounter in both the school and the community (p. 210-211).

When reflecting on the *Brown v. Board of Education* landmark court case for educational equity, Gay (2000) wrote, “educational opportunities and outcomes are more equalized for ethnically and racially diverse students when their cultural frames of reference and background experiences are used as scaffolds to teach academic knowledge and skills” (p. 214). Practical applications of such scaffolding included

cultural influences incorporated into “task interest, effort, academic achievement, and feelings of personal efficacy or social accountability” (Gay, 2004, p. 34). Gay reiterated repeatedly that cultural integration should become habitual for effective culturally responsive teachers (1985, 1990, 2000, 2002, 2004).

Further, “the curriculum should help students understand that knowledge is socially constructed and reflects researchers’ personal experiences as well as the social, political, and economic contexts in which they live and work” (Banks, et. al., 2001, p. 198).

One example of research to support Banks, et al. (2001), Tan (2001) investigated multiculturalism and school dropout rates. The qualitative study reviewed six high school campuses: three with low Hispanic dropout rates and three with high Hispanic dropout rates. This study added student perceptions of teacher-student relationship to the curriculum and instruction mix. Findings reported that high school students needed to feel respected and liked by their teachers, including “liking” their culture (p. 40).

Cultural Sensitivity

While growing up I did not learn about my culture nor did I gain cultural values through my community ... I do not think I was allowed to have a culture because I am a White, middle-class American girl from the suburbs. -Karen, a beginning teacher (Assaf & Dooley, 2006, p. 42)

The Assaf and Dooley (2006) quote demonstrated the need for teacher education courses to help future teachers better understand the role of culture in the classroom. Kauffman, Conroy, Gardner and Oswald pointed out that cultural sensitivity “has not been defined

operationally” (2008, p. 239). Irvine defined culture as “a group’s history, language, values, norms, rituals, and symbols” (2003, p. 6). Gay stated “culture determines how we think, believe, and behave, and these in turn, affect how we teach and learn” (2000, p. 9). For the purposes of this study, cultural sensitivity will be defined as the teacher’s acknowledgment of the student’s culture as a factor affecting his/her view, beliefs, behavior and learning style (Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003).

In a qualitative study of master’s level teacher education students, Glazier (2003) delved into European American teachers’ reticence to discuss race even as a major theme in African American literature. Using the work on Maya Angelou to spark conversation, Glazier found that conversations about race take time to develop: “themes of diversity must permeate our teacher education programs, not be limited simply to a single semester” (2003, p. 88).

In a mixed methods study, Rucker (2001) investigated the effectiveness of a cultural awareness project on the cultural sensitivity of teacher education students. The goal of the study was increasing teacher education students’ cultural sensitivity through participation in a cultural awareness project. The quantitative data yielded a lack of statistical significance for the intervention, but the qualitative data “show glimmers of the emergence of an enhanced level of cultural sensitivity” (Rucker, 2001, p. 176). Rucker (2001) acknowledged that increasing cultural sensitivity is a daunting task, yet advocating continuing along the path for the benefit of the diverse population in today’s classroom.

Teacher Efficacy

Although Teacher Efficacy is easily confused with actual teaching effectiveness, teachers' efficacy ... may underestimate, overestimate, or accurately reflect actual teaching effectiveness (Wheatley, 2005, p. 749).

Keeping an eye of effectiveness, Howard (1995), Bandura (1993, 1997) and Haberman (1991, 1995) created a trilogy of reinforcement in the field of teacher efficacy. Their work provided direction for teachers of urban children. As a factor of the CABI (Roberts-Walter, 2007), teacher efficacy was defined as "the extent to which teachers believe that they have the capacity to affect student performance" (Ashton, 1984, p 28).

Haberman (1995) reinforced this belief with his discussion of gentle teaching, high expectations and effort – ability learning. Teachers with high self-efficacy demonstrate the positive beliefs and behaviors including the ability to listen and understand, recognize and overcome adverse feelings, believe themselves to be winners, enjoy interactions with children, believe they make a difference on their students' lives, and feel great satisfaction in teaching. Bandura (1997) added optimism, setting goals, resiliency and perseverance. Haberman's definition of perseverance of high efficacy teachers meant "the continuous generation and maintenance of student interest and involvement" (1995, p. 22). Curriculum decisions were based on relevance to student interest and motivation as well as curricular goals. For STAR teachers, learning is the primary objective. These teachers hoped to turn their students into lifelong learners, who enjoy learning for knowledge's sake.

Extending the work of Haberman, the pre-service teachers' who responded to Sorrells, Schaller and Yang's quantitative study (2004) at a historically Black university investigated their efficacy beliefs on three factors: "(a) ability, (b) effort and (c) environment" (p. 518). The preservice teacher respondents were divided by ethnicity into African American and European American. On the first two factors, ability and effort, the researchers reported no significant difference based on ethnicity. However, the third factor, environment, was defined as "respondents' perceptions of their ability to bring about change with students given external influences of a student's home, family and community" (p. 525). African American preservice teachers saw the environment as effecting students' education positively; however, European Americans respondents' negative reaction to environmental effects of students' education were attributed to a possible flaw in the respondents' interpretation of the instrument's questions.

The researchers' interpretation of this finding failed to hold true as the European American respondents again exhibited a negative correlation to parental expectations for schooling (Sorrells, Schaller & Yang, 2004). African American respondents reported positive beliefs in parental expectations as related to students' education. The final finding of Sorrells, Schaller and Yang (2004) identified African American respondents reporting a lack of correlation between student's socioeconomic status and the student's motivation to learn or academic success. While the findings for European American respondents believed socioeconomic status directly affected a student's academic career (p. 528).

Recent research on teachers' perceptions of their self efficacy revealed several conclusions that pertain to this study as well as indicate the value of the factors measured by the CABI (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). In an effort to better measure a teacher's sense of self-efficacy, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) developed a new instrument to measure factors of Teacher Efficacy. These factors were divided into the following subscales: (a) efficacy for instructional strategies, (b) efficacy for classroom management, and (c) efficacy for student engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 800). The subscales correlated with several aspects of the CABI (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) including curriculum and instructional strategies, culturally responsive classroom management, and teacher efficacy. Two recent research studies that used Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale were Wolters and Daugherty (2007) and Grider (2008).

In an effort to explain goal structures and teacher efficacy, Wolters and Daugherty (2007) used the three subscales of teacher efficacy developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) in conjunction with demographic data and portions of a scale on adaptive learning. The quantitative study electronically surveyed 1,024 teachers of all grade levels from a large suburban school district in the southwestern United States. Although demographic data was collected failed to include ethnicity and gender, the questions focused on academic levels and years of experience. This demographic data provided contradictory results. Teachers with longer careers calculated higher means of teacher efficacy; however, teachers of older students reported

“less confidence in their ability to engage students meaningfully in the learning process” (Wolters & Daugherty, 2007, p. 189).

Grider’s (2008) results aligned with Wolters and Daugherty (2007). Grider’s (2008) quantitative study for 25 schools in the southeast United States surveyed 453 elementary, middle and high school teachers regarding their sense of self-efficacy. There was a lack of data on teachers’ ethnicity and gender. Teachers’ sense of self-efficacy was measured using the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). In the discussion of the study, Grider (2008) found that as the age of the student increased the teachers’ sense of self-efficacy decreased with regard to motivation of students, parent relationships and student engagement.

Secondary Small Learning Communities

The theory that organizing schools into smaller educational environments will help to build more collaborative and collegial communities of teachers, providing them with the autonomy and motivation to make better curricular and pedagogical decision in the interests of their students and therefore improving student learning (Supovitz, 2002, p. 1591).

Beginning with the 1964 report by Barker and Gump, *Big School, Small School*, research into restructuring the traditional four year high school prioritized downsizing the scope and breadth of the high school building and community (Sergiovanni, 1994).

Acknowledging a distinction between the high school building and the high school community became important to the secondary small learning community research (Oxley, 2005; Raywid, 1995). By the 1980’s many high school buildings have

implemented enrollments maximums of 2,000 students with recommendations by researchers to limit enrollment to 1,000 students in one building (Oxley, 2005; Raywid, 1995).

In the later part of the last century, the creation of schools-within-schools subdivided students and school resources into several smaller groups within the same building. Many schools-within-schools models evolved into charter schools during the 1980's and 1990's (Raywid, 1995). The charter schools specialized in specific curriculum and attracted teacher specialists. Unfortunately, several of the models required teachers participate in the charter program only part-time and to move back into the traditional high school setting the rest of the time (Raywid, 1995).

The nine reasons supportive of the schools-within-schools movement missed the multicultural tenets that would be included in the secondary small learning communities to follow (Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Raywid, 1995). During the latter part of the 1990's, researchers began to report the integration of multicultural tenets in the small schools movement (Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Raywid, 1995). The small schools movement evolved into the small learning community (SLC) (Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997).

While schools-within-schools promoted administrative advantages and charter schools promoted specialization for instructional advantages, the small learning communities promoted student advantages, especially the diverse population of a large urban high school (Howley & Bickel, 2000; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005).

The three C's of multiculturalism featured strongly in the SLC: curriculum, community and caring (Cotton, 2001; Gay, 2000; Nieto, 1999; Oxley, 2005; Pang, 2005).

The SLC consists of students divided into teams and shared between the one administrator, counselor and team of teachers. These professionals work on creating supportive relationships with the student and parents. Student-teacher relationships, student peer relationships and teacher peer relationships focused attention on community and facilitation of “personalization, flexibility and autonomy” (Oxley, 2005, p. 46).

In an attempt to find close the achievement gap, Levine and Marcus (2007) investigated two urban high schools with diverse populations. The study was divided into two approaches: administrative strategies to facilitate curriculum and instruction and small learning communities. The mixed methods study combined data from classroom observations, interviews, and development of correlation matrices. The findings presented discussion of the need for a “shared vision or set of objectives” (Levine & Marcus, 2007, p. 134). The results of effectiveness were mixed given the lack of vision required.

The Nature of Ninth Grade

The more educators know about students as people the better educators will be able to teach people as students in their classrooms (Cobern, Gibson, & Underwood, 1999, p. 542).

The transition from middle school to high school has generated a branch of research into the nature of ninth grade students' thinking, identity and achievement. Weiss and Bearman listed the difficulties that accompany entry into the high school: “grades

decline, the likelihood of course failure rises dramatically, behavioral trouble increases, and absences become much more common” (2007, p. 395).

Using data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, Weiss and Bearman (2007) mixed methods study followed 1,680 eighth grade students to ninth grade to measure two aspects of the students’ lives: nonacademic outcomes and academic outcomes. The students were divided into two groups: the students who changed campuses from eighth to ninth grades and the students who remained on the same campus during the transition from eighth to ninth grades.

Changing campuses worked in some students’ favor as it represented a fresh start especially for those students “who have troubled histories with respect to peer integration, attachment to school, and prior history of grade retention” (Weiss & Bearman, 2007, p. 416). However, for the majority of the students, changing campuses or remaining at the same campus played a minimal role. Grade retention and campus changes yielded differences in student aspirations. Students who had previously been retained but stayed on the same campus in ninth grade were “significantly less likely to aspire to postsecondary education” (Weiss & Bearman, 2007, p. 411) compared to their counterparts who changed to a different campus.

Using mixed methods, Kerr’s (2002) descriptive study analyzed 138 public high schools in Maryland. Gathering data on ninth graders, Kerr’s (2002) three areas of reform practices focused on dropout rates, promotion and achievement. School organization practices featured: (a) small learning communities, (b) interdisciplinary teaming of students and teachers, (c) homeroom/advisory periods for students,

(d) common core curriculum, (e) summer enrichment programs, (f) special curriculum featuring strategies for transitioning to high school, (g) student-centered instruction, (h) extended class periods, and (i) blocks of core academic classes.

Although the findings failed to show significant differences for promotion and achievement, the findings for dropout rates found that schools that incorporated five or more of the school organization practices. “The two practices most associated with pervasive change to school organization and student-teacher relations, a small learning community and interdisciplinary teaming of students and teachers, both have a positive influence on student dropout rates” (Kerr, 2002, p. 122).

Ninth Grade Literacy

The growing recognition of the role that limited literacy skills play in restricting student success throughout high school and, particularly, during the tenuous transition from eighth to ninth grade (Kemple, Corrin, Nelson, Salinger, Herrmann, Drummond, et al., 2008, p. 3).

Ninth grade literacy refers to the reading fluency, comprehension skills, vocabulary development and the content area application of reading in all areas of the high school curriculum. Kemple, et al. (2008) reported that the problem common to older struggling readers related to the comprehension of what was read rather the ability to read the written word. Showers, Joyce, Scanlon and Schnaubelt (1998) reported high percentages, “rarely less than 20 percent” (p. 27), of older students have poor reading skills.

On one campus in San Diego, CA, 59 percent of the 351 9th graders were reading below the 50th percentile (Showers, et al., 1998). Implementing an intervention course in reading that featured vocabulary development, phonetic and structural analysis, comprehension, listening and reading outside of class, Showers, et al. (1998) found students improved four times what they would have gained had there not been an intervention.

After the second semester of the intervention course in reading, the gains jumped to five times the mean gain (Showers, et al., 1998, p. 30). The results based on gender and ethnicity leveled out positively at the end of two semesters with the African American students performing slightly lower than other groups during the first semester and slightly higher than other groups during the second semester (Showers, et al., 1998).

Using an experimental case study design, Hogewood (2004) implemented reciprocal teaching, a research-based reading strategy, to increase the comprehension of ninth grade students' content area text reading. Reciprocal teaching strategies included (a) predicting, (b) clarifying, (c) questioning, and (d) summarizing (Hogewood, 2004, p. 7). Two areas resulted in clear gains for poor readers in the ninth grade: answering comprehension questions and summarizing passages. "I like this. Why did you wait so long in the year to start doing it?" (Hogewood, 2004, p. 114). The quote from a ninth grade student using the reciprocal teaching strategies pointed to the positive effect on student attitudes toward reading in the content areas.

Turner (2007) investigated teachers' perceptions of culturally responsive literacy teaching in conjunction with their cultural awareness. Teachers' perceptions were

converted into a vision of ideals of literacy instruction incorporating their cultural awareness with culturally responsive pedagogy. The vision project focused on transforming the instruction to a student-centered approach featuring five ideals: (a) classrooms as literacy communities, (b) teachers as facilitators in their classrooms, (c) students as active participants, (d) learner centered curriculum, and (e) students developing ownership of their literacy (Turner, 2007).

Student Achievement

Confidence → Effective Effort → Development (Howard, 1995, p. 89).

This linear model encouraged teachers to understand the impetus for student success begins with the confidence in their students of their ability to learn combined with the understanding that student effort contributes to student success. For many low income children, they fail to understand that their effort has a bearing on their learning (Haberman, 1995). Howard applauded effective teachers for building confidence in their students.

In conjunction with Howard (1995), Bandura's research (1993) found that school efficacy is a key contributor to student achievement. The belief of individual teachers and staff members combine with student beliefs in the efficacy of the school works to generate a climate of motivation that draws in parents and increases parental involvement with student achievement. High expectations, goals, planning, perseverance and resiliency combine to create a teacher with high efficacy and strong influences on student achievement.

Though research questions one and two will report on Teacher beliefs and Cultural Awareness, research question three will investigate the correlation of these two factors and student achievement. In Texas, student achievement is measured by a state-mandated assessment in conjunction with the NCLB requirements (USDOE, 2008). The Texas Education Agency developed the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) in 2003 (TEA, 2008a). The TAKS test, a criterion-referenced assessment, is administered to students in grades 3 through 11. Mathematics and reading tests are administered in grades 3 through 11; writing in grades 4, 7, 10 and 11; science in grades 5, 8, 10 and 11; and social studies in grades 8, 10 and 11. Students who fail the eleventh grade tests are blocked from graduation and retested until they are successful (TEA, 2008b).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive, correlational study (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003) investigated small learning community teachers' perceptions and traditional high school campuses teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness, teacher beliefs, school climate, culturally responsive classroom management, home and community support, curriculum and instruction strategies, cultural sensitivity, and teacher efficacy as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Further, the statistical differences between two campus types ninth grade teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI were explored as related to ethnicity and gender. Moreover, the relationship between small learning community teachers' perceptions and traditional high school teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI and student achievement as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) Ninth Grade Reading Test was examined.

Background

"We exist to prepare each student academically and socially to be a: critical thinker, problem solver; and responsible and productive citizen" (Fast Facts, 2008). This statement represented the mission for the urban school district in which the data was collected for this study. Curriculum and Classroom Management Guidelines for this urban school district were written in positive statements aimed at student success and acknowledging the role of Cultural Awareness in the educational success of the district (Fast Facts, 2008).

The archival data used for this study was collected in the 12th largest school district located in the southwestern United States during the 2005-2006 school year. This large urban district spanned 111 square miles in the largest metropolitan area of Texas (Fast Facts, 2008). The per capita income of this area is \$11,889.00. The median household income averages \$25,713.00 within a metropolitan area with an average household income of \$46,705.00 (Openlist, 2008; Greater Houston Partnership, 2007). The area surrounding the school district consists of predominantly industrial sites and is in close proximity to a large airport. The tax base per student in this district was \$163.20, one of the lowest rates in this metropolitan area, compared to \$604.10, being the highest (Greater Houston Partnership, 2007).

Demographics of the Urban District's Student Population

The data for this descriptive, correlational study was collected from teachers working at eight of ten secondary campuses in the district: four small learning community campuses and four traditional high school campuses. The district reported a student to teacher ratio of 29:1. However, the student-teacher ratio for small learning community campuses averaged 15:1, while the student-teacher ratio for the traditional high school campuses was only marginally higher at 16:1.

The small learning community campuses' reported scheduling a teaming period for teachers as well as a traditional conference period; thereby reducing the number of students per teacher. When factoring in the additional teaming period into the student-teacher ratio, the ratio of small learning community campuses to traditional high school campuses resulted in 76 to 97 students per teacher, teachers employed at traditional high

school campuses serve 21 additional students daily (see Table 3.1). The research on small learning community features the need for building relationships with students (Oxley, 2005). An additional 20 students would appear to interfere with the development of such relationships.

Table 3.1

Student-Teacher Ratios by Campus Type

Campus	Ratio	Total Students
Small Learning Community	15:1	76
Traditional High School	16:1	97

Ethnicity of Urban School District's Student Population

The district's student population of this urban district totaled 57,931 and was composed of 35,372 (or 61.1 percent) Hispanic Americans, 18,451 (or 31.8 percent) African Americans, 2,811 (or 4.9 percent) European Americans, and 1,297 (or 2.2 percent) Native Americans/Asian/Pacific Islanders (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2006; Fast Facts, 2008) (See Table 3.2).

Table 3.2

Ethnicity of Urban School District's Student Population

Ethnicity	N	Percentage
Hispanic American	35,372	61.1
African American	18,451	31.8
European American	2,811	4.9
Native American/Asian/Pacific Islander	1,297	2.2
TOTAL	57,931	100.0

This urban school district serves a larger minority population than other areas within the state. The district's student population of African American students is more than double the state student population of 14.7 percent African American students (TEA, 2008a). As described by the Academic Excellence Indicator System's (AEIS) report for the 2005-06 school year (TEA, 2008a), the Hispanic American student population for this study exceeded the state's Hispanic American population by 16 percent.

Ethnicity of Urban School District's Secondary Student Population

The breakdown of the district's secondary student population paralleled the overall student population with slight deviations. There was a 4 percent difference in the Hispanic American population within the secondary student population of 7,322 (or 57.1

percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.3) and an increase in the African American student population at 4,448 (or 34.7 percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.3). The European American population mirrored the district's student population of 675 (or 5.3 percent) as did the Native Americans/Asian/Pacific Islanders population at 378 (or 2.9 percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.3).

Ethnicity of the Small Learning Community Campuses' Ninth Grade Student Population

The ethnic composition of the student population located on the small learning community campuses mirrored the district's total student population percentages. The small learning community campuses' ninth grade student population totaled 3,590 and was composed of 2,177 (or 60.6 percent) Hispanic Americans, 1,155 (or 32.2 percent) African Americans, 193 (or 5.4 percent) European Americans and 65 (or 1.8 percent) Native Americans/Asian/Pacific Islanders (TEA, 2008a) (See Table 3.3). These single grade campuses were another example of the district's commitment to implement best practices. The website for one of the ninth grade campuses featured the breakdown of the campus resources into four teams of small learning communities which included an administrator, a counselor and four teams of teachers.

Ethnicity of the Traditional High School Campuses' Student Population

Nearly three times larger than the small learning community campuses' population, the traditional high school campuses served a total of 9,212 students. The ethnic composition of the student population was reported as 5,128 (or 55.7 percent) Hispanic Americans, 3,291 (or 35.6 percent) African Americans, 530 (or 5.8 percent)

Table 3.3

Ethnicity of Urban School District's Secondary Student Population

Ethnicity	Total District		SLC Campuses		THS Campuses		THS Campuses Ninth Grade Population	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Hispanic American	7,322	57.1	2,177	60.6	5,128	55.7	737	60.3
African American	4,448	34.7	1,155	32.2	3,291	35.6	414	33.8
European American	675	5.3	193	5.4	530	5.8	53	4.3
Native American/Asian/ Pacific Islander	378	2.9	65	1.8	263	2.9	19	1.6
TOTAL	12,823	100.0	3,590	100.0	9,212	100.0	1,223	100.0

European Americans, and 263 (or 2.9 percent) Native Americans/Asian/Pacific Islanders (TEA, 2006) (See Table 3.3).

Ethnicity of the Traditional High School Campuses' Ninth Grade Student Population.

The four traditional high school campuses served a total of 1,223 ninth grade students. These ninth grade students were those students who had previously failed at the small learning community campuses or those who transferred into the district as retained ninth graders. The ethnic compositions of these populations were 737 (or 60.3 percent) Hispanic Americans, 414 (or 33.8 percent) African Americans, 53 (or 4.3 percent) European Americans and 19 (or 1.7 percent) Native Americans/Asian/Pacific Islanders (TEA, 2008a) (See Table 3.3).

Gender of the Urban District's Student Population

Gender was a variable of the study in addition to ethnicity. The gender breakdown of the district separated the total student population of 58,093 into 29,721 males (or 51.1 percent) and 28,372 females (or 48.9 percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.4).

Gender of the Urban District's Secondary Student Population

Of the 12,823 students enrolled in the eight high schools, the population separated into 6,420 male students (or 50.1 percent) and 6,403 male students (or 49.9 percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4
Gender of Urban School District's Secondary Student Population

	Total District		District's Secondary Student Population		SLC Campuses		THS Campuses		THS Campuses Ninth Grade Population	
Gender	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Female	28,372	48.9	6,403	49.1	1,780	49.6	4,610	49.9	474	38.8
Male	29,721	51.1	6,420	50.1	1,810	50.4	4,623	50.1	729	61.2
TOTAL	58,093	100.0	12,823	100.0	3,590	100.0	9,233	100.0	1,223	100.0

Gender of the Small Learning Community Campuses Ninth Grade Population

Of the 3,590 students attending the four small learning community campuses, the division along gender lines found 1,810 (or 50.4 percent) males and 1,780 (or 49.6 percent) females (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.4).

Gender of the Traditional High School Campuses' Student Population

The total student population of the traditional high school campuses mirrored the district's population when discussing gender. Of 9,233 students in the traditional high schools, the female student population totaled 4,623 (or 50.1 percent), and the male student population was 4,610 (or 49.9 percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.4).

Gender of the Traditional High School Campuses Ninth Grade Population

The traditional high school campuses' ninth grade population's distribution by gender resulted in 749 (or 61.2 percent) males and 474 (or 38.8 percent) females (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.4). The disproportionate number of male retainees replicated the research regarding the disparate treatment of males (Davis, 2006; Greene & Winters, 2006). Twice as many males as females were assigned to the THS ninth grade population. As previously discussed, ninth graders enrolled at THS were repeating the ninth grade. Therefore, based on these numbers, it appeared that a larger number of males were retained in the ninth grade than the number of females.

Demographics of the Urban District's Teacher Population

The literature on multicultural education has delved into the impact of teachers' ethnicity and gender within a classroom of students representing diverse populations (Apple, 1985; Delpit, 1995; Howard, 1993; Pang & Sablan, 1998; Sleeter, 2001). For

this study, demographic data for ethnicity and gender was analyzed as possible contributing factors of the teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and beliefs as measured by the CABI.

Ethnicity of the Urban District's Teacher Population

The majority of the urban district's teacher population was European American and numbered 1,839 (or 48.0 percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.5). This district also employed a large population of African American teachers totaling 1,297 (or 33.8 percent) (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.5). The Hispanic American teacher population numbered 623 (or 16.3 percent) (TEA, 2008a). However, a majority of the student population was Hispanic American (TEA, 2008a). Teachers representing Native American/Asian/Pacific Islander were 73 (or 1.9 percent). For the purposes of this study, the ethnicities of Hispanic American and Native American/Asian/Pacific Islander have been combined to represent the population designated as Other. The number of teachers who comprised Other numbered at 696 (18.2 percent).

Ethnicity of the Urban District's Secondary Teacher Population

The secondary teachers' population for this urban school district totaled 803 teachers (TEA, 2006). The ethnic composition of secondary teachers was comprised of 430 (or 53.5 percent) European Americans, 291 (or 36.3 percent) African Americans, and 82 (or 10.2 percent) Other (TEA, 2006) (See Table 3.5).

Table 3.5

Ethnicity of Urban School District's Teacher Population

Ethnicity	Total District		District's Secondary		SLC Campuses		THS Campuses	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
European American	1,839	48.0	430	53.5	110	46.7	320	56.3
African American	1,297	33.8	291	36.3	108	46.0	183	32.2
Other	696	18.2	82	10.2	17	7.3	65	11.5
TOTAL	3,832	100.0	796	100.0	235	100.0	568	100.0

As supported by the literature, the ethnicity of the majority of teachers in this urban school district was European American (Arekere, 2004; Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003; USDOE, 1997). When compared, the percentage of African American teachers was nearly equivalent to the percentage of the African American secondary student population. This equivalence failed to hold true for the Hispanic American population, the largest ethnic group in the district.

For the purpose of this study, the secondary teacher populations were divided into two groups of ninth grade teachers: Those who taught ninth grade at small learning community campuses and those teaching ninth grade at traditional high school campuses.

Ethnicity of the Small Learning Community Campuses Teacher Population

The small learning community campuses in this district employed 235 teachers. The ethnic composition of the small learning community campuses' teachers was comprised of 109 (or 46.7 percent) European Americans, 108 (or 46.0 percent) African Americans, and 17 (or 7.3 percent) Other (TEA, 2006) (See Table 3.5). The small learning community campuses employed ten percent more African American teachers than the overall percentage of African American teachers employed by the district. The number of African American teachers was nearly equal to the number of European American teachers, contrary to the literature (Arekere, 2004; Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003; USDOE, 1997).

Ethnicity of the Traditional High School Campuses' Teacher Population

The traditional high school campuses housed ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade students employing a total of 568 teachers (TEA, 2006). The ethnic composition of the traditional high school campus' teachers was comprised of 320 (or 56.3 percent) European Americans, 183 (or 32.2 percent) African Americans, and 65 (or 11.5 percent) Other (TEA, 2006) (See Table 3.5). However, the number of European American teachers was 24 percent more than the number of African American teachers serving the traditional high school student population.

Gender of Urban School District's Teacher Population

As noted in the literature, a majority of classroom teachers are female (Apple, 1985; Kincheloe, Slattery, & Steinberg, 2000). The large, urban school district surveyed in this study employed 3005 (or 78.4 percent) female teachers and 828 (or 21.6 percent) male teachers (TEA, 2008) (see Table 3.6).

Gender of Urban School District's Secondary Teacher Population

Gender demographics for secondary campuses yielded a smaller disparity with 496 (or 61.7 percent) female teachers and 308 (or 38.3 percent) male teachers (TEA, 2008) (see Table 3.6). (see Table 3.6).

When the secondary teacher populations were sectioned into campus groups, the Small Learning Community Campuses' teacher population resulted in 149 (or 63.2 percent) female teachers and 88 (or 36.8 percent) male teachers (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6

Gender of Urban School District's Secondary Teacher Population

Gender	School District		Small Learning Community Campuses		Traditional High School Campuses	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
Female	496	61.7	149	63.2	299	61.3
Male	308	38.3	88	36.8	188	38.7
TOTAL	804	100.0	237	100.0	2487	100.0

Based on gender, the Traditional High School Campuses' teacher population differed marginally from the Small Learning Community Campuses' teacher population. The Traditional High School Campuses' employed 299 (or 61.3 percent) female teachers and 188 (or 38.7 percent) male teachers (TEA, 2008a) (see Table 3.6).

Population

The population for this descriptive, correlational study was in-service teachers instructing ninth grade students in an urban school district in the southwestern United States. The teachers participating in this study were employed by the twelfth largest school district in Texas during the 2005-2006 school year.

Sample

Perceptions of ninth grade secondary teachers from eight campuses of this urban school district, four small learning community campuses and four traditional high school

campuses, were the focus of this descriptive, correlational study. Therefore, the sample was limited to 174 (or 63 percent) ninth grade teachers of the possible 276 ninth grade teachers in the urban district, who responded to the CABI, divided into two campus groups: 121 (or 69.5 percent) small learning community campus ninth grade teachers and 53 (30.5 percent) traditional high school campus ninth grade teachers (see Table 3.7).

Table 3.7

Population of Ninth Grade Teacher Respondents by Campus Group

Campus	N	Percentage
Small Learning Community	121	69.5
Traditional High School	53	30.5
TOTAL	174	100.0

Ethnicity of Small Learning Community Campuses' Ninth Grade Teacher Population

The ethnic composition of the 121 teachers employed at small learning community campuses in this study was reported as 53 (or 43.8 percent) as African Americans, 37 (or 30.6 percent) European Americans, 14 (or 12 percent) identified themselves as Other, which encompassed Native Americans, Pacific Islanders, Bi-Racial Americans, Asian Americans, Arab Americans, and Hispanic Americans (see Table 3.8).

Of the ninth grade teacher respondents, 17 (or 14.0 percent) failed to answer this demographic question, and are reported as Missing (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) (See Table 3.8).

Ethnicity of Urban School District's Traditional High School Campuses' Ninth Grade Teacher Population

The ethnic composition of the 53 ninth grade teachers employed at the traditional high school campuses responding to this study was 22 (or 41.5 percent) African Americans, 19 (or 36.0 percent) European Americans, and 8 (or 15 percent) identified as Other, which encompassed Native Americans, Pacific Islanders, Bi-Racial Americans, Asian Americans, Arab Americans, and Hispanic Americans. Of the total traditional high school campuses' ninth grade teacher respondents, 4 (or 7.5 percent) failed to answer this demographic question. Therefore, this information has been reported as Missing (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) (See Table 3.8).

The ethnicity of the ninth grade teachers responding to the CABI was similar to the district's teacher population with a minor difference: the African American teacher population serving ninth grade students was slightly higher than in the district's African American teacher population.

Table 3.8

Ethnicity of Sample Population's of Ninth Grade Teachers

Ethnicity	SLC Campuses		THS Campuses	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
African American	53	43.8	22	41.5
European American	37	30.6	19	36.0
Other	14	12.0	8	15.0
Missing	17	14.0	4	7.5
TOTAL	121	100.0	53	100.0

Gender of Sample Population's Ninth Grade Teachers

The gender demographics for the ninth grade teacher respondents resulted in similar ratios of females to males. The 121 small learning community campuses' ninth grade teachers reported their gender as 83 (or 68.6 percent) female and 38 (or 31.4 percent) male (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) (see Table 3.9).

Of the 53 respondents employed at the traditional high school campuses, ninth grade teachers 36 (or 67.9 percent) identified themselves as female, while 17 (or 32.1 percent) described themselves as male (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) (see Table 3.9). Therefore, while a larger number of teachers served the smaller learning community campuses, the percentage of female and male teachers were similar at both the small learning community and the traditional high school campuses.

Table 3.9

Gender of Sample Population's Ninth Grade Teachers

Gender	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
Female	83	68.6	36	67.9
Male	38	31.4	17	32.1
TOTAL	121	100.0	53	100.0

Though the number of ninth grade teacher respondents employed at the traditional high school campuses' were fewer than the number of ninth grade teacher respondents working on the small learning community campuses, the percentages regarding gender fell within less than a two-point difference.

Procedure

As previously noted, the data for this study were collected in conjunction with a previous project and, therefore, validity and reliability information were available from a previous study. Roberts-Walter (2007) reported the reliability of the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory as .80 for internal consistency. Implications for further research suggested investigation of the eight factors as applied to the demographics of the teacher respondents.

To begin the analysis of the CABI, Roberts-Walter (2007) conducted an exploratory factory analysis with a principal component analysis to determine the

smallest number of factors representing the interrelationships among the variables in the CABI. Using a scree test of the eigenvalues, Roberts-Walter (2007) determined there were eight factors addressed by the CABI, which included: (a) cultural awareness, (b) teacher beliefs, (c) school climate, (d) culturally responsive classroom management, (e) home and community support, (f) curriculum and instructional strategies, (g) cultural sensitivity, and (h) teacher efficacy (Roberts-Walter, 2007).

To ensure compliance with all investigation requirements of the university, training with the Office of Research Compliance was completed to determine the mandates of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Because this study utilized archival data, the IRB deemed the application as exempt. The procedure for this descriptive, correlational study was dependent on each research question; therefore, the procedure follows each research question.

Instrument

Developed by Webb-Johnson and Carter (2005), the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) measured the perceptions and attitudes of teachers' Cultural Awareness and beliefs of eight factors (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The first eleven questions of the CABI collected the demographic information from the respondents including: gender, level of educational degree attained, years of teaching experience, current grade level taught, teacher certifications held, and ethnicity.

Similar to the work developed by Thurstone (1929a), the second part of the inventory consisted of 45 belief statements that focus on teachers' perceptions of eight factors: (a) cultural awareness, (b) teacher beliefs, (c) school climate, (d) culturally

responsive classroom management, (e) home and community support, (f) curriculum and instructional strategies, (g) cultural sensitivity, and (h) teacher efficacy (Roberts-Walter, 2007). As per Roberts-Walters (2007), nine of the original 45 items were eliminated due to a lack of fit with the other factors.

When discussing the construction of an attitude scale, Thurstone wrote: “One must insure that at least a fair majority of the statements really belong on the attitude variable that is to be measured” (1929a, p. 23). Therefore, after the nine items were eliminated, the resultant inventory yielded 36 items that measured the eight factors desired by Webb-Johnson and Carter (2005) (Roberts-Walter, 2007).

The thirty-six item inventory asked respondents for quantitative responses on a 1 – 4 point Likert scale using: 4 as “Strongly Agree”, 3 as “Agree”, 2 as “Disagree”, and 1 as “Strongly Disagree”. Commonly used, Likert scales “typically ask for the extent of agreement with an attitude item” (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003, p. 214).

The CABI also included three open-ended questions requesting qualitative data regarding: a) behavioral management concerns, b) racial, ethnic, and /or socio-economic concerns and c) leadership concerns (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). The open-ended questions follow the dictates of Dawis, who advocated open-ended interviews to “to elicit a wide range of statements about the variable in question” (1987, p. 482).

The CABI was founded on research-based studies conducted by Bunting (1981), Dawis (1987), Likert (1932), Henry (1995) and Thurstone (1929a). Thurstone (1929b) introduced “a new psycho-physical method for measuring the psychological or functional similarity of attitudes” (p. 222) and sought to measure social attitudes for

psychological purposes (1929, 1931). In the development of attitude surveys, Thurstone listed “paired comparison” (1931, p. 251) statements of the same subject or attitude. The respondent chose the statement he or she identified with most. To ensure the reliability of the results, Thurstone’s method required complex mathematical computations of means and medians of these attitude statements (1929a).

Soon afterward, Likert (1932) suggested a new method to bypass the paired comparison statements with a system of five symbols to allow the respondents to agree or disagree with the original attitude statement. The symbols gave way to a numerical system using the numerals 1 through 5. The Likert Scales increased the reliability of the instrument from .76, when using the Thurstone method, to .85 using the “simplified method” (Likert, 1993, p. 690).

In 1981, Bunting explored the implications of attitude inventories for educational purposes. Creating the Educational Attitudes Inventory, Bunting used 35 items to evaluate teacher attitudes and Teacher beliefs in four domains: (A) affective, (B) cognitive, (C) directive, and (D) interpretive. After administering the Educational Attitudes Inventory to 290 elementary school teachers, the reliability and validity data “show promise for the psychometric adequacy” and the need for additional administration of the inventory to evaluate the construct validity (Bunting, 1981, p. 564).

Henry (1986) included the tenets of multicultural education in a survey of teacher attitudes and beliefs using the Cultural Diversity Awareness Inventory. Using a Likert scale for the 28 items inventory, teachers used the five-point scale to rate their beliefs about culture’s role in the classroom. In the analysis, the author suggested that two of the

questions be “revised, replaced, or deleted” as these statements did not fit well with the rest of the inventory (Henry, 1986, p. 50). Using a panel of experts to evaluate the validity of the inventory and Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient to yield a .9 for the reliability of the survey, Henry (1986) found the Cultural Diversity Awareness Inventory viable for continued use in the investigation of teachers’ attitudes and beliefs about culture.

Data Collection

The Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) was administered during the 2005-2006 school year to 3,833 pre-kindergarten through grade 12 teachers employed by a large urban public school district located in the southwestern United States. Of the urban school district’s teacher population given the CABI during the fall semester of 2005, 1,873 (or 49 percent) teachers returned the instrument (P. Natesan, personal communication, 2007). From the 1,873 respondents, the data for this study was disaggregated into two campus groups of ninth grade teachers: (A) small learning community campuses and (B) traditional high school campuses. When compared to the urban school district’s secondary teacher population for ninth grade students, the sample population for this study yielded a higher return percentage for the CABI of 174 (or 63 percent) ninth grade teachers.

The respondents in the small learning community campus group and the traditional high school campus group were then delineated to those teachers identifying themselves as ninth grade teachers. The number of respondents teaching ninth grade at small learning community campuses yielded 121 teachers, while 53 ninth grade teachers employed at the traditional high school campuses responded to the CABI. The data

collected from 174 teachers of the 276 possible ninth grade teachers in this urban school district representing these two campus groups was used for this descriptive, correlational study.

Research Design

The descriptive, correlational design (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003) examined archival data collected from the ninth grade teachers of an urban school district in the southwestern United States during the 2005-2006 school year. The purpose of a descriptive design included the defining the current state of teachers' perceptions regarding several culturally-based aspects of school life found in the urban school district. The correlational design expanded this definition to review the existence of possible relationships between the various aspects of the teachers' perceptions studied and measured by the CABI.

Archival data for the purposes of this study was defined as "existing sources of data are those items currently available in the files or archives of the school or of individual staff members" (Calhoun, 1994, p. 53). The CABI solicited responses from teachers regarding their perceptions of eight factors as well as demographic data such as ethnicity and gender.

Plan for Analysis

Prior to analysis, the responses to the CABI items were analyzed and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software program. SPSS was used to analyze the data. After the data were recorded in SPSS, the responses of the ninth grade teachers on eight campuses of the urban school district was sorted by

campus groups and examined for missing data. Missing data was noted and determination of the impact on the data was determined. In the majority of the instances of missing data, the “exclude cases pairwise” option in SPSS were employed (Pallant, 2007, p. 57) in lieu of deleting the entire record with missing data.

The data file was then examined for errors. All discrepancies, whether in categorical variables or continuous variables, found using SPSS to determine that all responses were within the minimum and maximum ranges. If any discrepancies were found, the error’s location was examined to determine the viability of the information and its necessity to the entire data file. Whenever possible the error was corrected using the “Exclude cases pairwise” option in SPSS (Pallant, 2007, p. 57) in lieu of deleting the entire record containing the error. The CABI contained ten negatively worded items (Roberts-Walter, 2007). (see Table 3.10). When reviewing these negatively worded items, the items were identified due to the crafting of each item failed to follow the direction of the other items in the scale (S. Knight, Personal Communication, 2009). All of the negatively worded items identified were transformed to reverse scores, while retaining the original items.

After the data file was completed, scaled scores for the remaining respondents in each campus group were calculated using descriptive statistics. The normality of the distribution for each campus groups’ scaled scores was examined for skewness, “the symmetry of the distribution” (Pallant, 2007, p. 56), and kurtosis, the height of the different peaks of the distribution, to direct the tests necessary for further analysis of the study’s research questions.

Table 3.10

Reverse Scored CABI Items

Item No.	Item	CABI Factor
23	I believe some students do not want to learn.	TE
25	I believe there are factors beyond the control of teachers that cause student failure.	TE
31	I believe African American students have more behavior problems than other students.	TB
32	I believe African American students are not eager to learn as White students.	TB
46	I believe in a society with as many racial groups as the United States, I would accept the use of ethnic jokes or phrases by students.	CS
47	I believe there are times when “racial statements” should be ignored.	CS
48	I believe a child should be referred “for testing” if learning difficulties appear to be due to cultural differences.	CS
49	I believe teaching of ethnic customs and traditions is not the responsibility of public school personnel.	TE
52	I believe students from certain ethnic groups appear lazy when it comes to academic engagement.	TB
53	I believe in-service training focuses too much on “multicultural” issues.	TE

Research Question #1

What are the differences by campus types (small learning community campus and traditional high school campus) of ninth grade teachers' cultural awareness and teacher beliefs perceptions?

To determine the small learning community and traditional high school teachers' perceptions of the factors measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory, descriptive statistical tests measuring central tendency and variability were conducted to determine the macro-means and standard deviations of each of the factors. The mean provided greater reliability rating. Through examining standard deviations, the dependability of the data was provided (Isaac & Michaels, 1997). If a violation of normality existed, Levene's test was run to determine the equality of variance. Non-parametric tests, such as Mann Whitney, were also calculated to determine the differences between the campus groups.

Research Question #2

What are the differences by campus types of the eight factors of the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory by teachers' ethnicity or teachers' gender?

The macro means and standard deviations of the small learning community campuses' teachers' perceptions and traditional high school campuses' ninth grade teachers' perceptions of the eight factors previously calculated were analyzed to determine the normality. In addition to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, the skewness and Kurtosis values were obtained. Further, histograms were produced by the data were examined.

If the tests for normality revealed a normal distribution, then the means were compared through an analysis of variance (ANOVA). An ANOVA was employed to measure significant differences between teachers' perceptions of the two campus groups and the variances were compared (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003). As the groups in this study varied in number, the ANOVA would either yield reliable data or the normality tests would fail for variance. However, if the Kolmogorow-Smirnov statistic showed a significance of .000, then the median was calculated for each group and compared by calculating a non-parametric test, the Kruskal-Wallis (Pallant, 2007).

Research Question #3

What is the relationship between ninth grade students' reading TAKS scores and the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs of the ninth grade teachers perceptions by campus type?

Correlation coefficients were calculated between the data collected from both groups of teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI and the data gathered from the students' scores measured through the administration of the Ninth Grade Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) Reading Test (TEA, 2006). Further, correlation coefficients and factor analysis were used to create a correlation matrix. The correlation matrix explored the impact of small learning community campuses' ninth grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and beliefs with regard to achievement of students assigned to small learning community campuses and the impact of traditional high school campuses' ninth grade teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and beliefs with regard to achievement of students assigned to traditional high school

campuses. This determination was conducted to discover a relationship between student achievement as measured by the TAKS Ninth Grade Reading Test and teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and beliefs as measured by the CABI.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

During the fall semester of 2005, Webb-Johnson and Carter administered the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) to the ninth grade teachers of a large urban school district in the southwestern United States. This descriptive, correlational study used this archival data to analyze the responses of 174 ninth grade teachers. These respondents were divided into two campus groups: Small Learning Community (SLC) Campuses and Traditional High School (THS) Campuses.

The CABI (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) queried teachers' perceptions of eight factors: (a) cultural awareness (CA), (b) teacher beliefs (TB), (c) school climate (SC), (d) culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM), (e) home and community support (HCS), (f) curriculum and instructional strategies (CI), (g) cultural sensitivity (CS), and (h) teacher efficacy (TE) (Roberts-Walter, 2007).

For this study, the reliability of the eight factors was repeated using the ninth grade teachers' responses to the CABI from both the SLC campuses and the THS campuses. As the CABI was constructed with a Likert scale format, the reliability was calculated in accordance with the recommendation of Dawis (1987) who stated: "reliability should be computed for every research use of Likert scales, not just at scale development, because reliability is a function not only of the scale but also for the respondent sample" (1987, pg. 484). The results were used to discuss the reliability and validity of the differences between the teachers' perceptions of the two campus groups.

The reliability of the scales for each factor of the two campus groups' teachers'

perceptions was examined for internal consistency using the mean inter-item correlation. Fewer than ten items were used to address each of the factors. Therefore for the purposes of this study, the optimal mean inter-item correlation should fall between .2 and .4 (Pallant, 2007).

The factor of Cultural Awareness (CA) consisted of five items reflecting teachers' perceptions of cultural integration into curriculum, parental communication, and identifying with ethnic groups other than one's own (Roberts-Walter, 2007, p. 129). The questions for CA were 37, 39, 40, 41 and 50 (see Table 4.1). The mean inter-item correlation fell between the optimal amounts at .31 with individual questions ranging from .31 to .55 (see Table 4.1). Cronbach's alpha for CA at .67 proved acceptable (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.1).

The factor of Teacher Beliefs (TB) consisted of eight items, which reflected the teachers' perceptions of TB toward African American and other underserved students (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The questions for TB were 30, 31, 32, 34, 35, 38, 42, and 52 (see Table 4.2). Seven of the eight questions negatively worded. These questions failed to follow the direction of the other questions in the instrument which was the justification for reverse scoring the data pertaining to these seven items. Question 30 was the exception to this procedure. The mean inter-item correlation fell between the optimal amounts at .31 with individual questions ranging from .32 to .55 (see Table 4.2). Cronbach's alpha for TB was computed at .75, thereby suggesting acceptable reliability (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.1

Mean Inter-item Correlation for Cultural Awareness

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item- Total Correlation
40	I believe cultural views of a diverse community should be included in the school's yearly program planning.	.55
41	I believe it is necessary to include on-going family input in program planning.	.53
37	I believe it is important to identify with racial groups of the students I serve.	.41
50	I believe Individualized Education Program meetings or planning should be scheduled for the convenience of the family.	.39
39	I believe I am comfortable with people who exhibit value or beliefs different from my own.	.31

Table 4.2

Mean Inter-item Correlation for Teacher Beliefs

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
35	I believe African American students do not bring as many strengths to the classrooms as their White peers.	.55
31	I believe African American students have more behavior problems than other students.	.55
32	I believe African American students are not eager to learn as White students.	.54
52	I believe students from certain ethnic groups appear lazy when it comes to academic engagement.	.51
42	I believe I have experienced difficulty in getting African American families involved in their children's education.	.50
38	I believe I would prefer to work with students and parents whose cultures are similar to mine.	.36
34	I believe students in poverty are more difficult to teach.	.32
30	I believe African American students consider performing well in schools as "acting White".	.32

The factor of School Climate (SC) consisted of eight items reflecting the teachers' perceptions regarding SC combined with collegial and administrative support (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The questions for SC were 12, 13, 14, 15, and 17 (see Table 4.3). None of the five questions required being reversed. The mean inter-item correlation fell between the optimal amounts at .49 with individual questions ranging from .55 to .67 (see Table 4.3). Cronbach's alpha for SC was computed at .83, which suggested "very good internal consistency reliability" (Pallant, 2007, p. 98) (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3

Mean Inter-item Correlation for School Climate

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
13	I feel supported by administrative staff.	.67
15	I believe I have opportunities to grow professionally as I fulfill duties at my ISD.	.67
12	I feel supported by building principal.	.66
17	I believe my contributions are appreciated by my colleagues.	.57
14	I feel supported by professional colleagues.	.55

The factor of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM) consisted of three items reflecting the teachers' perceptions toward the role of culturally responsive pedagogy as it pertained to classroom management. This factor included statements focusing on providing equity in the classroom (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The questions for CRCM were 55, 56 and 57 (see Table 4.4). These three questions were written in direct, positive language negating the need to reverse score. The mean inter-item correlation exceeded the optimal amounts at .71 with individual questions ranging from .61 to .86 (see Table 4.4). Cronbach's alpha for CRCM at .88 suggested "very good internal consistency reliability" (Pallant, 2007, p. 98) (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4

Mean Inter-item Correlation for Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
56	I believe I have a clear understanding of the issues surrounding discipline.	.86
57	I believe I have a clear understanding of the issues surrounding classroom management.	.85
55	I believe I am able to effectively manage students from all racial groups.	.61

The factor of Home and Community Support (HCS) consisted of four items, which reflected the teachers' perceptions toward the role of community and family in the academic success of all students (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The questions for HCS were 19, 20, 21, and 22 (see Table 4.5). These four questions were written in direct, positive language negating the need to reverse score. The mean inter-item correlation fell between the optimal amounts at .38 with individual questions ranging from .33 to .70 (see Table 4.5). Cronbach's alpha for HCS at .71 suggested "acceptable reliability" (Pallant, 2007, p. 98) (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5

Mean Inter-item Correlation for Home and Community Support

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
21	I believe my ISD families of African American students are supportive of our mission to effectively teach all students.	.70
20	I believe my ISD families are supportive of our mission to effectively teach all students.	.61
19	I believe "all" students are treated equitably regardless of race, culture, disability, gender or social economic status.	.39
22	I believe the district has strong support for academic excellence from our surrounding community (civic, church, business).	.33

The factor of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies (CI) consisted of four items reflecting the teachers' perceptions toward the role of culturally responsive pedagogy as it pertains to instructional strategies (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The questions for CI were 26, 27, 28, and 51 (see Table 4.6). These four questions were written in direct, positive language negating the need to reverse score. The mean inter-item correlation fell between the optimal amounts at .25 with individual questions ranging from .30 to .41 (see Table 4.6). Cronbach's alpha for CI was calculated at .55 suggesting acceptable reliability given the scale had fewer than ten items (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6

Mean Inter-item Correlation for Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
27	I believe I am culturally responsive in my teaching behaviors.	.41
26	I believe in-service training this past year has assisted me in improving teaching strategies.	.34
51	I believe frequently used material within my class represents at least three different ethnic groups.	.33
28	I believe cooperative learning is an integral part of my ISD teaching and learning philosophy.	.30

The factor of Cultural Sensitivity (CS) consisted of three items, which reflected the teachers' perceptions toward the role of CS as it pertains to "characteristic of attitudes and behaviors held by teachers toward students of other cultures" (Roberts-Walter, 2007, p. 130). The questions for CS were 46, 47 and 48 (see Table 4.7). These three questions were written in language requiring the items to be reverse scored. These questions failed to follow the direction of the other questions in the instrument which was the justification for reverse scoring the data pertaining to these seven items. The mean inter-item correlation fell between the optimal amounts at .21 with individual questions ranging from .17 to .34 (see Table 4.7). Cronbach's alpha for CS at .42 suggested the need to rely on the mean inter-item correlation due to the low alpha (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.7).

The factor of Teacher Efficacy (TE) consisted of four items, which reflected the teachers' perceptions toward their effectiveness in the classroom (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The questions for TE were 23, 25, 49, and 53 (see Table 4.8). These four questions were written in language, which would represent a teacher with a sense of low self-efficacy which raised the need to reverse score. These questions failed to follow the direction of the other questions in the instrument which was the justification for reverse scoring the data pertaining to these seven items. The mean inter-item correlation fell between the optimal amounts at .27 with individual questions ranging from .34 to .40 (see Table 4.8). Cronbach's alpha for TE at .59 suggested acceptable reliability given the scale had fewer than ten items (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.7

Mean Inter-item Correlation for Cultural Sensitivity

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
47	I believe there are times when “racial statements” should be ignored.	.34
46	I believe in a society with as many racial groups as the United States, I would accept the use of ethnic jokes or phrases by students.	.30
48	I believe a child should be referred “for testing” if learning difficulties appear to be due to cultural differences.	.17

Table 4.8

Mean Inter-item Correlation for Teacher Efficacy

Item No.	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
53	I believe in-service training focuses too much on “multicultural” issues.	.40
49	I believe teaching of ethnic customs and traditions is not the responsibility of public school personnel.	.39
23	I believe some students do not want to learn.	.39
25	I believe there are factors beyond the control of teachers that cause student failure.	.34

Research Question #1

What are the differences by campus types (small learning community campus and traditional high school campus) of ninth grade teachers’ cultural awareness and teacher beliefs perceptions?

Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory for Ninth Grade Teacher Respondents

The initial analysis began with determining the mean of the teachers’ responses as measured by the CABI. One example of this necessity was reflected by the following question: I believe African American students are not as eager to excel in school as

White students (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005, p. 5). Of the thirty-six items found on the CABI, thirteen items were reverse scaled (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The macro mean of the 174 respondents yielded 2.77 with a standard error of .02 (see Table 4.9).

The CABI used the quantitative Likert Scale: A as “Strongly Agree”, B as “Agree”, C as “Disagree”, and D as “Strongly Disagree” (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005).

The standard deviation of .21 denoted the small spread in the responses over the respondents’ survey (see Table 4.9). The skewness statistic of 1.10 with a standard error of .18 indicated the means were clustered near the lower end of the scores (see Table 4.9) (Pallant, 2007). The skewness value was large enough to consider the distribution non-normal (Price, 2000). The kurtosis statistic of 3.42 with a standard error of .37 indicated the distribution of the peakedness of the means to be clustered around a center (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.9). The histogram validated these statistics (see Figure 4.1). The distribution of the histogram indicates several possible extreme values at the positive end of the scale.

Table 4.9

Mean and Normality of the Ninth Grade Respondents to the CABI

Test	Statistic	Standard Error	Significance
Mean	2.77	.02	
5% Trimmed Mean	2.76		
Standard Deviation	.21		
Median	2.76		
Skewness	1.10	.18	
Kurtosis	3.42	.37	
Kolmogorv-Smirnov	.08		.01

The median of 2.76 compared to the mean with a .01 decrease indicated a “tail” of data “skewed toward larger values” (see Table 4.9) (Norusis, 2006, p. 83). To determine the effect of this tail, the trimmed mean was calculated to test the influence of extreme values on the macro mean (Pallant, 2007). The 5% trimmed mean of 2.76 differed from the macro mean by .01. This small difference demonstrated an insignificant influence of any possible outliers within the data (see Table 4.9).

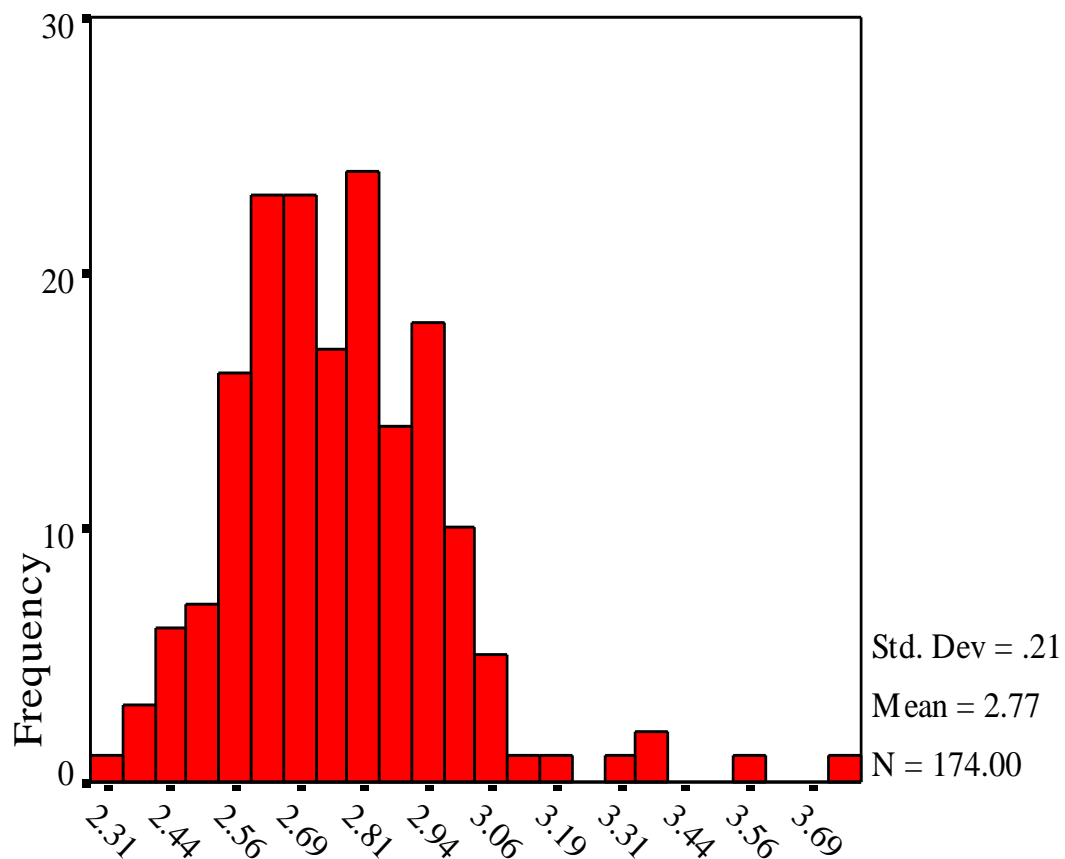


Figure 4.1 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI

The normal probability plot (Normal Q-Q Plot) noted that the assumption of a normal distribution was violated as demonstrated by the points lying outside the line (Pallant, 2007) (see Figure 4.2). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic score of .08 with a significance of .013 also indicated a violation of normality (Pallant, 2007).

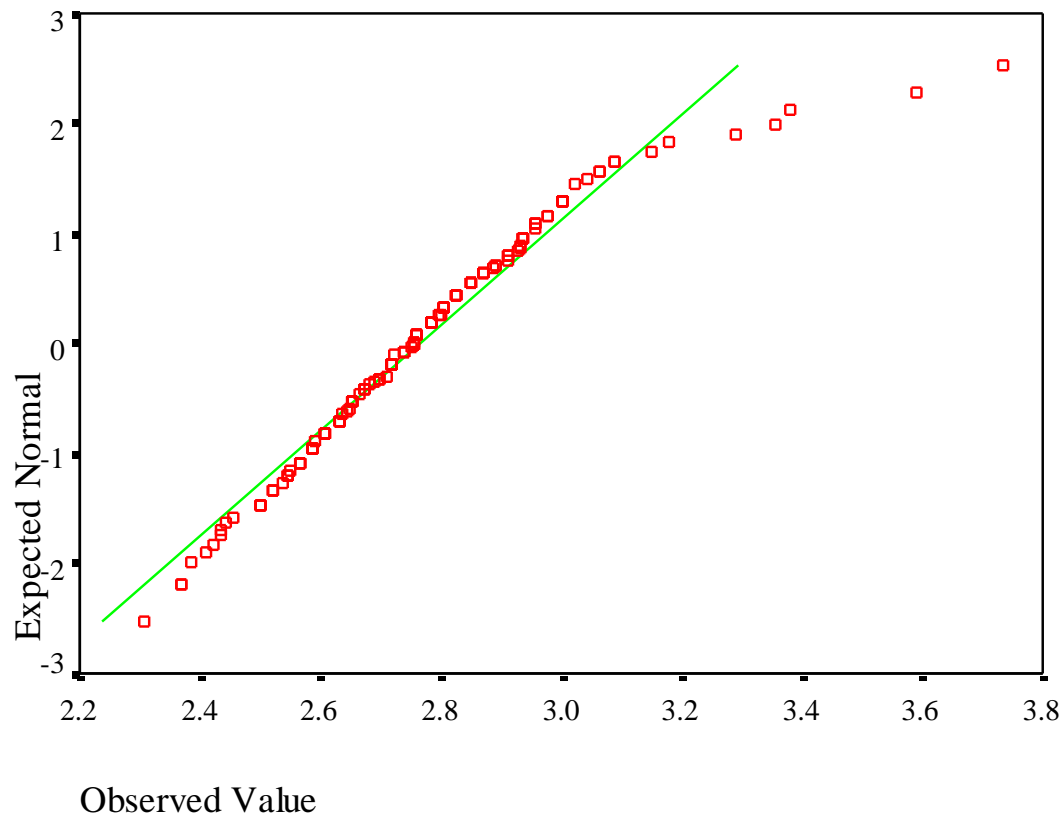


Figure 4.2 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the
Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI

CABI Ninth Grade Teacher Respondents by Campus Group

Investigation of the CABI survey respondents based on campus type expanded the number of tests required. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and beliefs as measured by the CABI. A lack of a significant difference was noted at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI scores for the two campus:

$F(1,172) = .00$, $p = .98$. The macro means of the teachers' perceptions working in Small Learning Community (SLC) Campuses was calculated at 2.77 with a standard error of .02. The mean of the teachers' perceptions from Traditional High School (THS) Campuses was calculated at 2.77 with a standard error of .03. When comparing the means of the teachers' perceptions from the SLC campus to those of the THS campus, nearly indistinguishable differences were yielded (see Table 4.10). Comparison of the 5% Trimmed Means demonstrated a slight increase in the differences with SLC at 2.76, which was greater than THS at 2.75 (see Table 4.10).

Review of the medians changed the relationship as THS's median of 2.76 scored higher than SLC's median of 2.75 (see Table 4.10). This shift indicated that SLC's mean may have been more affected by extreme values (Norusis, 2006). Examination of the histograms with the skewness of each campus group resulted in large differences between SLC of .66 and THS of 2.17 (see Table 4.10, Figure 4.3, and Figure 4.4).

The kurtosis values for each histogram further demonstrated large differences with SLC at 1.58 and THS at 8.37 (see Table 4.10). The kurtosis of a normal distribution should be approximately 0 (NIST/SEMATECH, 2006). The SLC kurtosis described the data as relatively flat or with several peaks as demonstrated by examination of the histogram (see Figure 4.3). The THS kurtosis denoted a long tail in the positive direction. Examination of the histogram confirmed this result (see Figure 4.4).

Table 4.10

Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups on the CABI

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	2.77	2.77
N	121	53
Standard Error	.02	.03
5% Trimmed Mean	2.76	2.75
Median	2.75	2.76
Skewness	.66	2.17
Kurtosis	1.58	8.37
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.07	.14
Significance	.17	.01

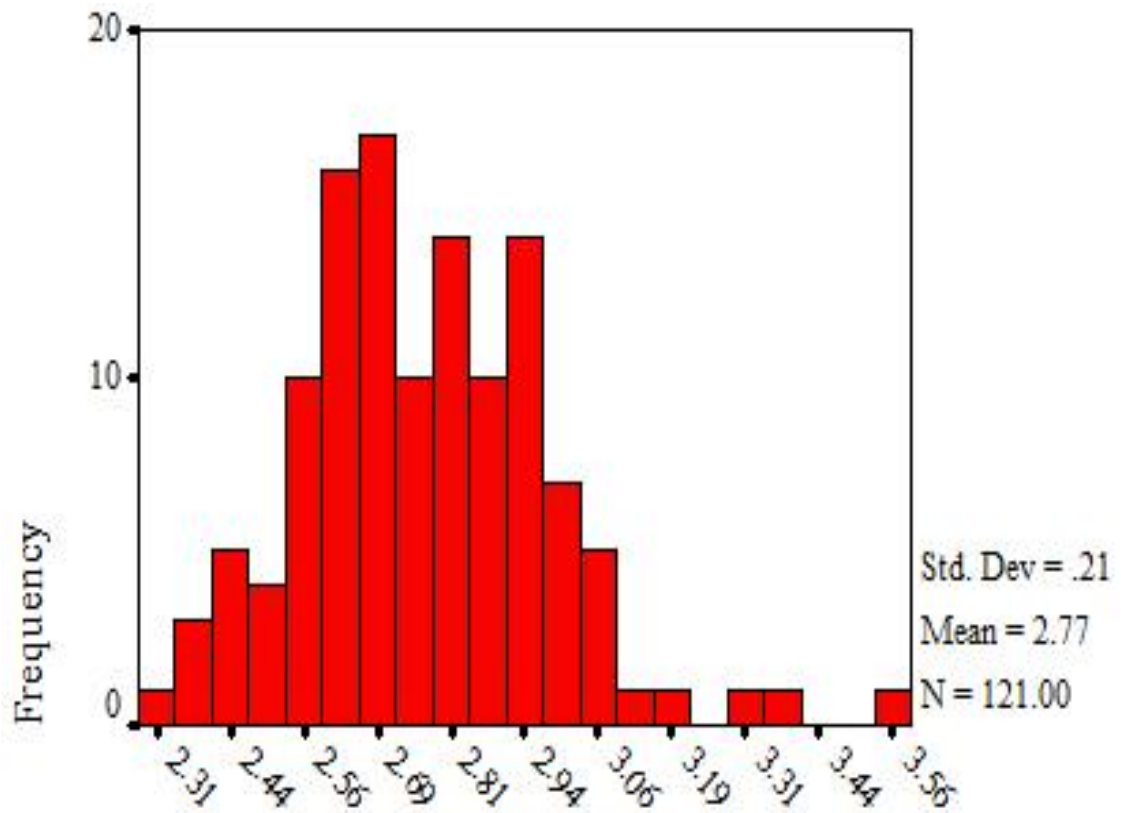


Figure 4.3 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI

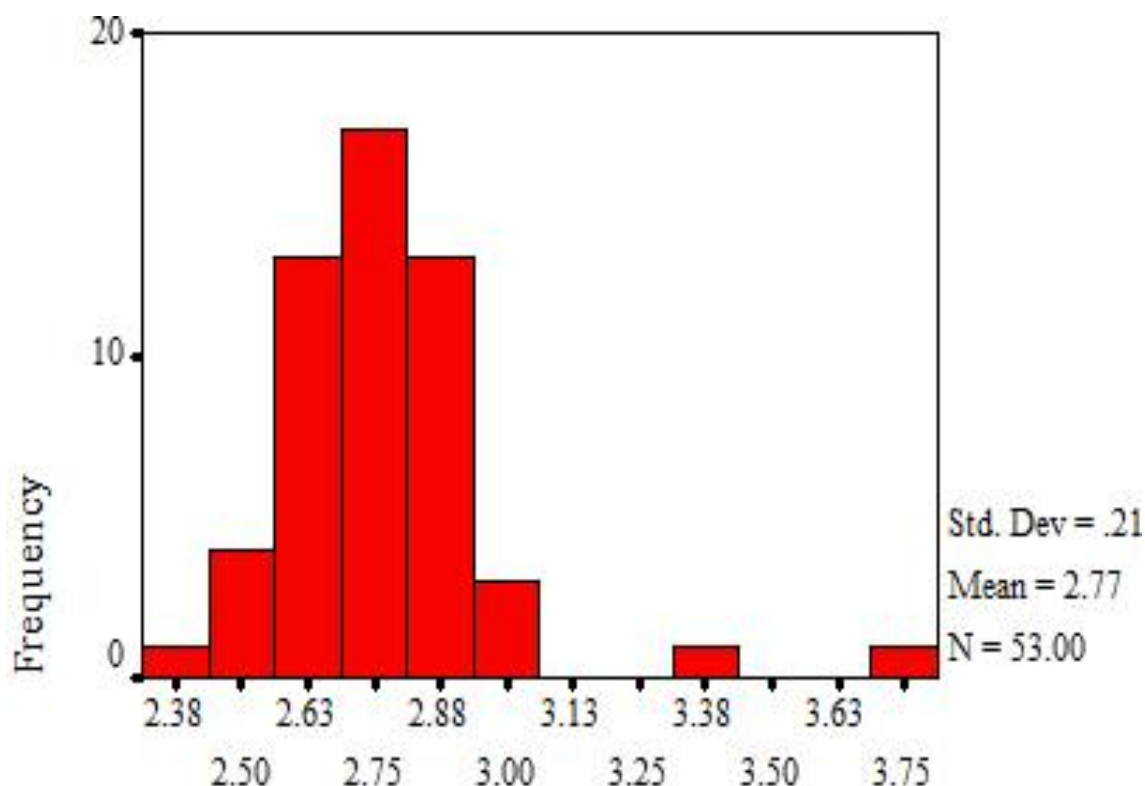


Figure 4.4 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI

The inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus groups' CABI mean provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6). Few points fell along the line required of a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents with several values posted away from the line at the higher end of the mean (see Figure 4.5).

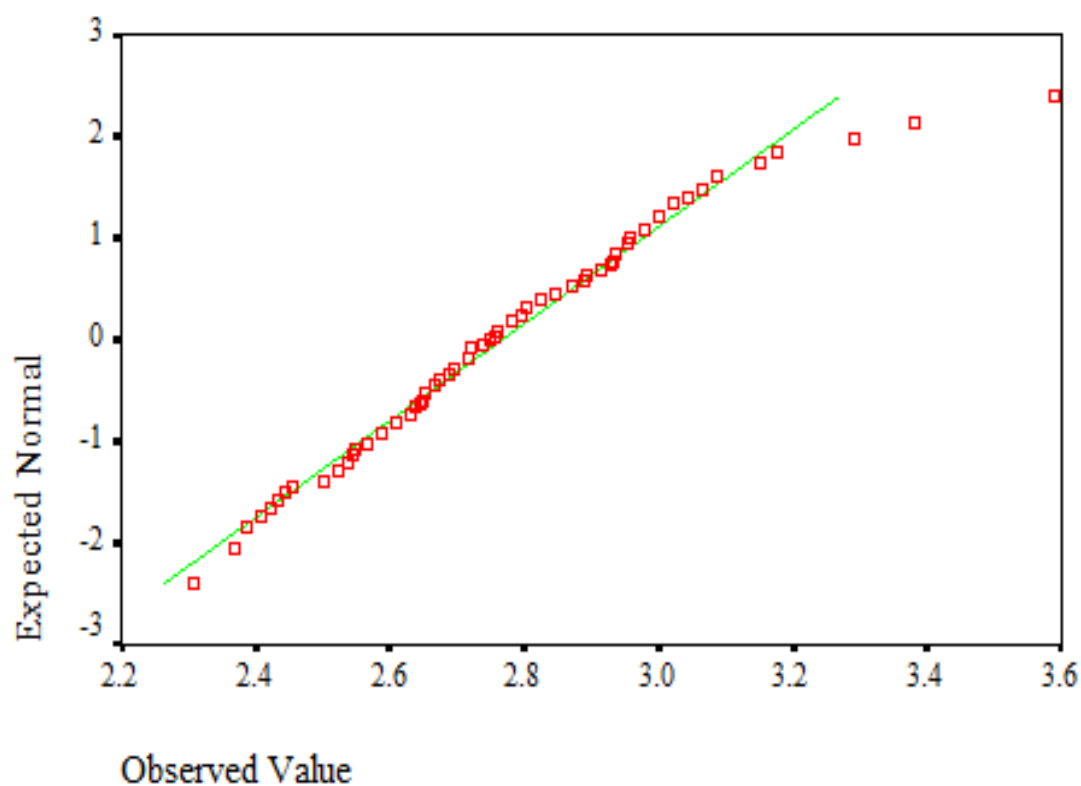


Figure 4.5 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the
SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' CABI means concurred with the histogram reading a violation of normality (see Figure 4.6). Two respondents' means exceeded the line by a large .3 and .7 (see Figure 4.6). Upon examination of the plot, few values were in alignment with the Normal Q-Q Plot line (see Figure 4.6).

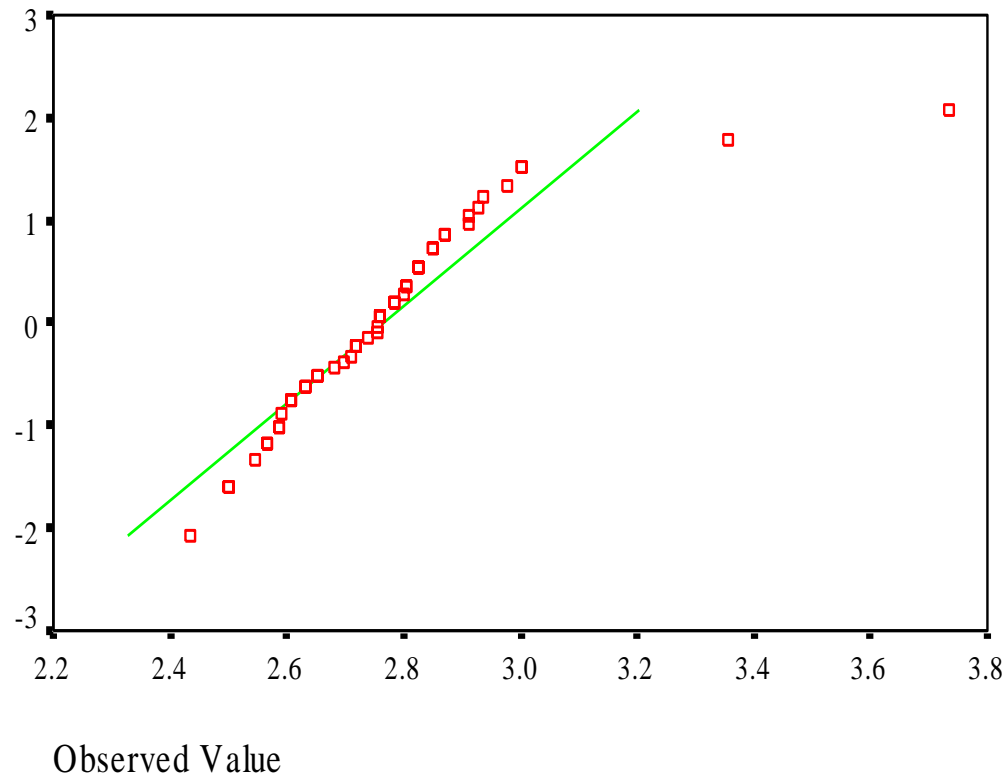


Figure 4.6 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the
THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on the CABI

The violation of a normal distribution required the use on non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 88.30 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 85.67 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney score of 3109.50 and a significance of .75, no significant difference was revealed in the CABI means of SLC and THS campus groups at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.11). The Levene's test for homogeneity

of variances required interpretation of the campus CABI means' variance. The Levene's test result of .88 with a significance of .35 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11
Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the
CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	121	88.30		
Traditional High School	53	85.67		
Mann Whitney U			3,109.50	.75
Levene's			.88	.35

Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Groups as Measured by the CABI

The CABI measured eight factors: (a) cultural awareness (CA), (b) teacher beliefs (TB), (c) school climate (SC), (d) culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM), (e) home and community support (HCS), (f) curriculum and instructional strategies (CI), (g) cultural sensitivity (CS), and (h) teacher efficacy (TE). The measures

of central tendency, the means and medians, of these eight factors were compared by campus groups. The means provided key information regarding the distribution of the data and where appropriate the medians were additionally examined.

Cultural Awareness (CA)

Cultural Awareness (CA) was examined with a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) to explore the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness as measured by the CABI. A lack of a significant difference was noted at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI scores between the two campus groups: $F(1, 164) = 1.18, p = .28$. The descriptive statistics of the SLC campuses presented a mean of 3.08 with a standard error of .04 and a mean of 2.99 with a standard error of .06 for THS campuses (see Table 4.12). The difference between the two means was .09. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 3.09 for the SLC campuses and 2.98 for the THS campuses yielded a difference of .11. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007).

However, the differences failed to hold true for the medians. The medians for both campus groups were equal at 3.00 (see Table 4.12). Therefore, a statistically significant difference between the SLC teachers' perceptions of CA and the THS teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI failed to be found.

Analysis of the normality of the distributions found negative skewness for the SLC campus group and positive skewness for the THS campus group for the CA means. SLC campus group skewness was $-.53$ indicating the data to be clustered at the larger end of the values (see Table 4.12). Kurtosis for the SLC campus group was 1.97

indicating the data to be peaked around the center (see Table 4.12). Examination of the histogram of the data for SLC campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.7). One major peak was noted in the center of the data and the data was negatively skewed toward the larger end of the values (see Figure 4.7).

Table 4.12

Cultural Awareness Comparative Means
of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	3.08	2.99
N	116	50
Standard Error	.04	.06
5% Trimmed Mean	3.09	2.98
Median	3.00	3.00
Skewness	-.53	.55
Kurtosis	1.97	-.03
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.18	.17
Significance	.00	.00

In contrast, THS campus group skewness was calculated at .55, thereby indicating the data to be on the lower end of the values for CA (see Table 4.12). Kurtosis for the THS campus group was calculated at -.03 indicated a flat distribution (see Table 4.12). Examination of the histogram of the data for THS campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.8). The histogram lacked one major peak but featured several small peaks scattered throughout the data and the data was positively skewed toward the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.8).

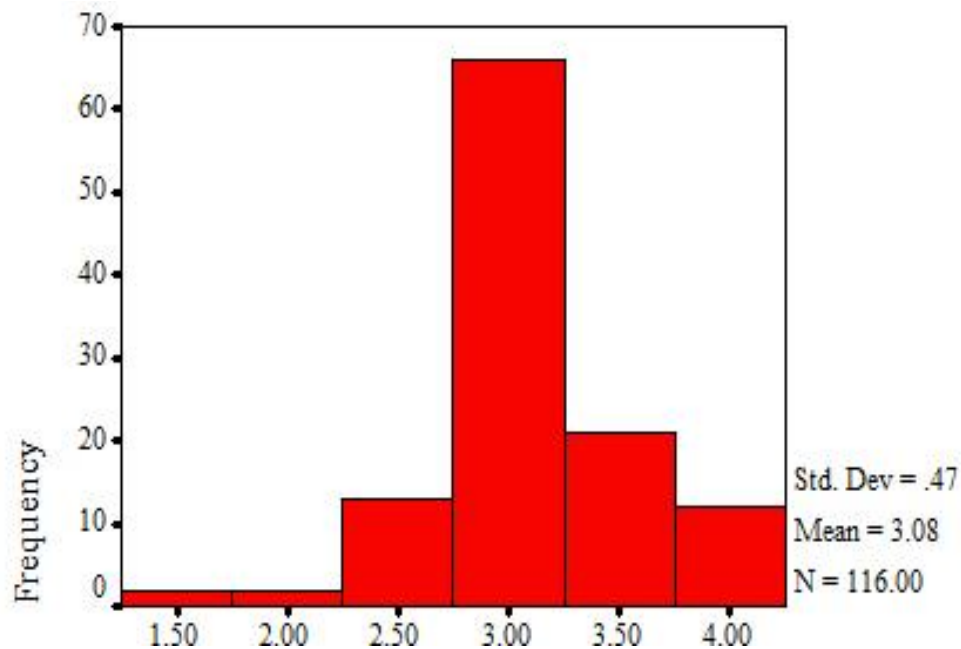


Figure 4.7 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness

The inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus groups' CABI mean provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus group had been violated (see Figure 4.9 and Figure 4.10). Most of the points fell along the line required for a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents with a few values posted away from the line at the lower end of the means (see Figure 4.9).

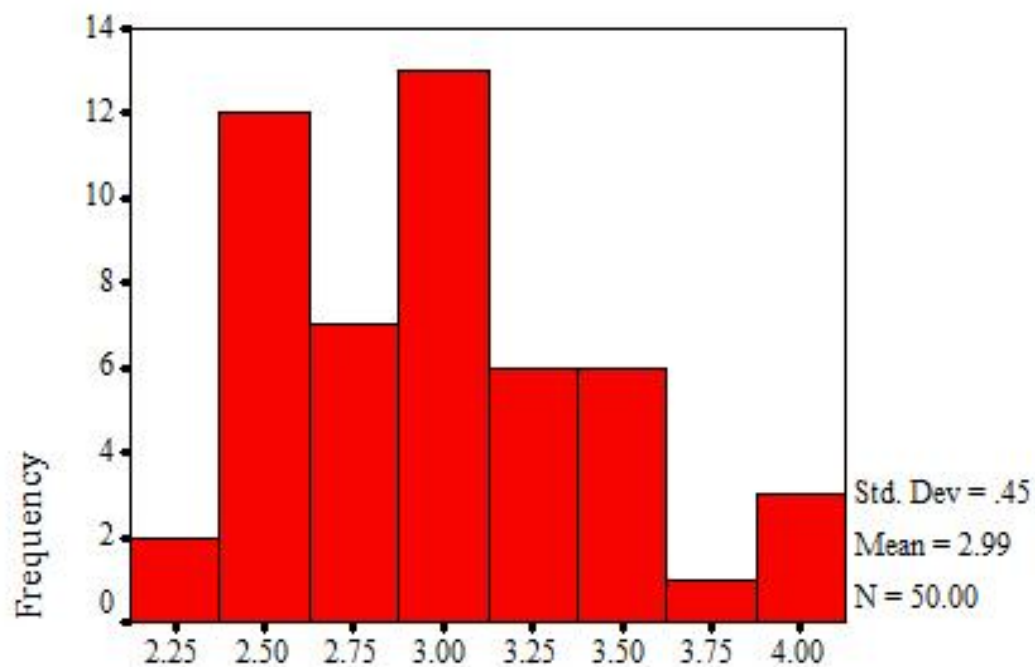


Figure 4.8 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' CABI means of CA concurred with the histogram reading a violation of normality (see Figure 4.10). Two respondents' means exceeded the line at the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.10).

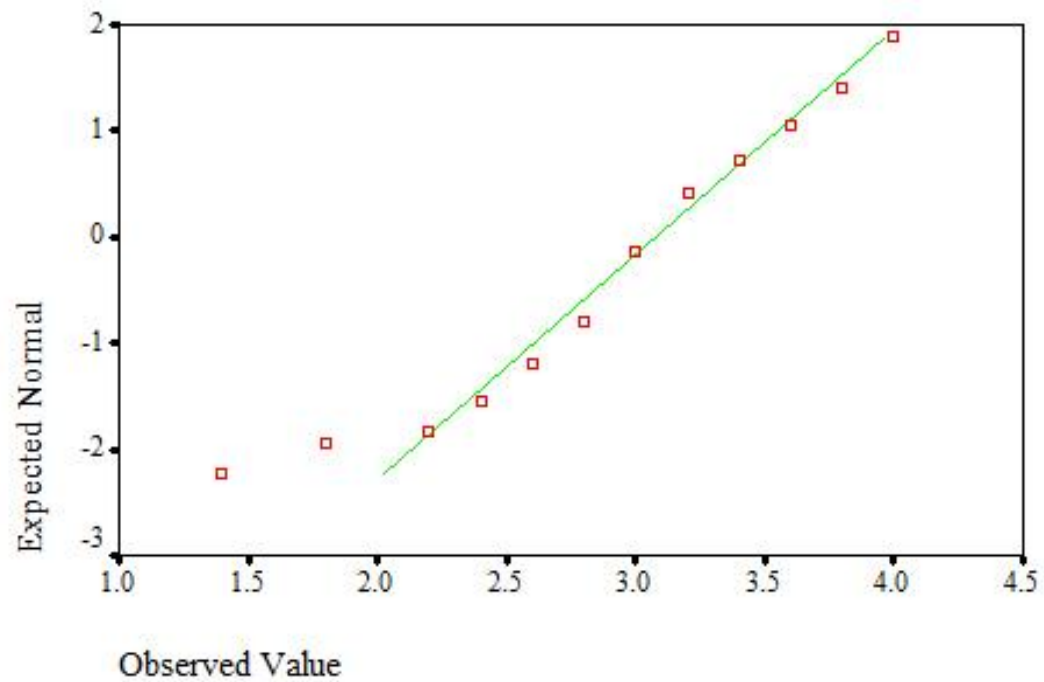


Figure 4.9 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness

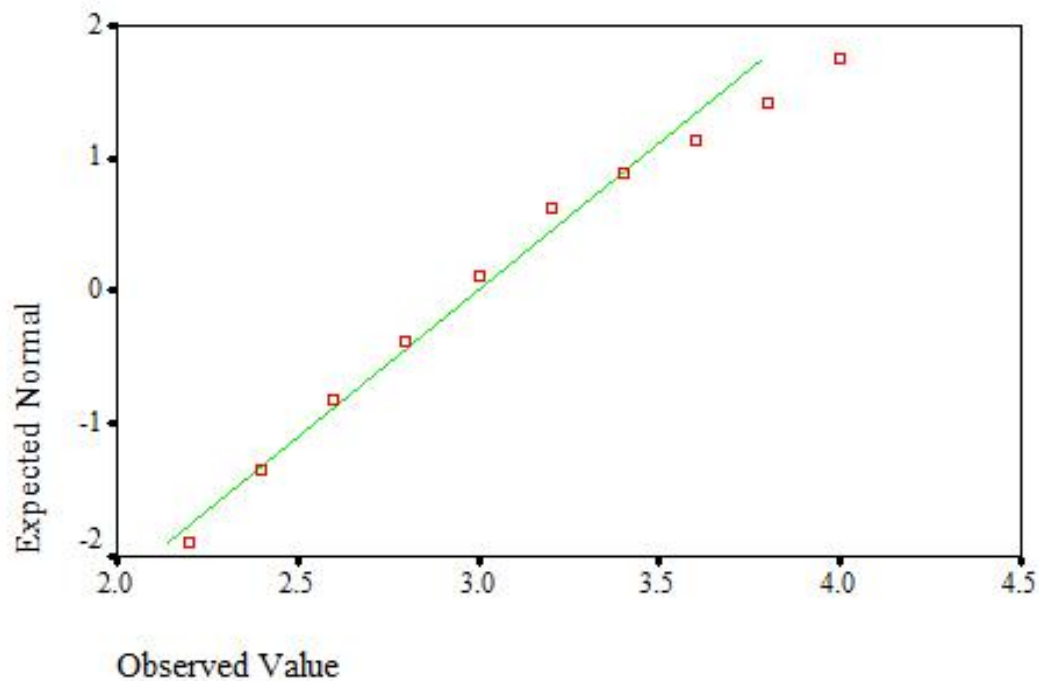


Figure 4.10 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Awareness

Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group teachers' perceptions of CA were tested at .18 with a significance of .00 indicated the violation of normality (see Table 4.12). The THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value of .17 with a significance of .00, which also verified the violation of normality (see Table 4.12).

The violation of a normal distribution required the use of non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the

Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 87.28 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 74.74 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney U test score of 2,462.00 and a significance of .12, no significant difference was revealed in the teachers' perceptions of the CA means of SLC and THS campus groups at $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.13). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of the campus groups' means' variance of CA. The Levene's Test result of .01 with a significance of .95 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.13

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the
CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Cultural Awareness

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	116	87.28		
Traditional High School	50	74.74		
Mann Whitney U Test			2,462.00	.12
Levene's			.01	.91

Teacher Beliefs (TB)

The second factor, teacher beliefs (TB), presented means of 2.26 with a standard error of .04 for SLC campuses and 2.29 with a standard error of .06 for THS campuses (see Table 4.14). A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of teacher beliefs as measured by the CABI. A lack of a significant difference was noted at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI scores for the two campus groups: $F(1, 158) = .10, p = .75$. The difference between the two means was .03. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.25 for the SLC campuses' teachers' perceptions and 2.25 for the THS campuses' teachers' perceptions were equal. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007). The medians for both campus groups' teachers' perceptions mirrored the 5% Trimmed Means and were equal at 2.25 (see Table 4.14). This equality indicated a lack of difference between the ninth grade teachers' perceptions of TB as measured by the CABI.

Analysis of the normality of the distributions was found to be negligible, but positive skewness for the teachers' perceptions of the SLC campus group and larger positive skewness for the teachers' perceptions of the THS campus group for the means of TB was found. SLC campus group skewness was .20, thereby indicating the data to be clustered around the center of the values (see Table 4.14). Kurtosis for the SLC campus group was 1.26, thus indicating the data to be peaked near the center with long tails in either direction (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.14).

Examination of the histogram of the data for teachers' perceptions of the SLC campus groups confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.11). Three peaks were noted in the center of the data with the data being mildly skewed toward the center of the values (see Figure 4.11).

Table 4.14

Teacher Beliefs Comparative Means
of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	2.26	2.29
N	110	50
Standard Error	.04	.06
5% Trimmed Mean	2.25	2.25
Median	2.25	2.25
Skewness	.20	1.39
Kurtosis	1.26	2.90
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.09	.18
Significance	.04	.00

In contrast, the teachers' perceptions of the THS campus groups' skewness was 1.39, thereby indicating the TB data to be on the lower end of the values (see Table 4.6). Kurtosis for the THS campus group of 2.90 demonstrated a peaked distribution clustered around the center of the values (see Table 4.14).

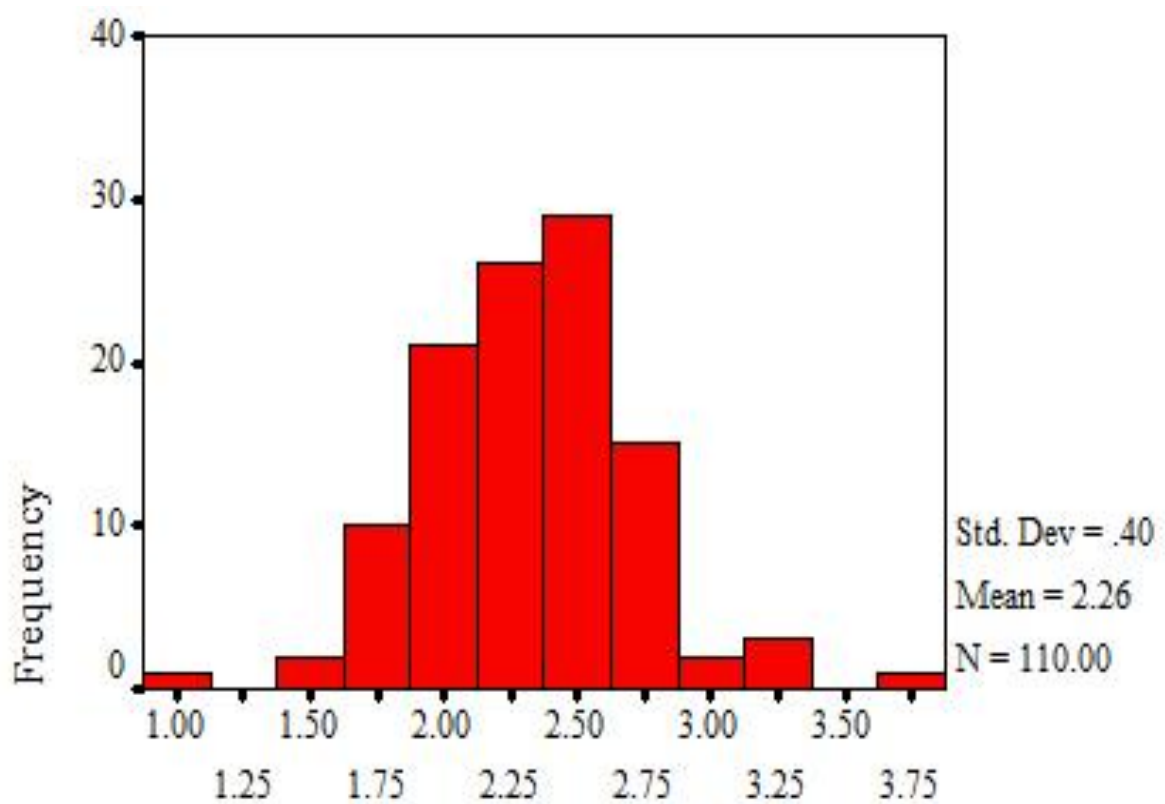


Figure 4.11 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the
SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs

Examination of the histogram of the data related to the teachers' perceptions of the THS campus groups confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.12). The histogram lacked one major peak, but featured several small peaks scattered throughout the data, which was positively skewed toward the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.12).

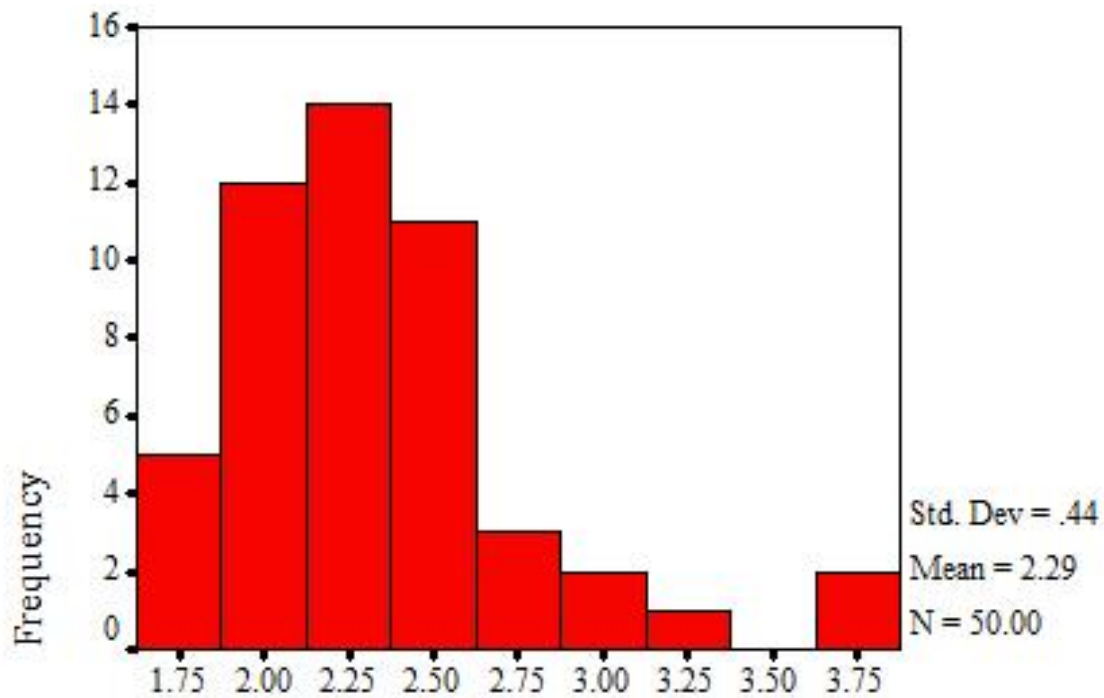


Figure 4.12 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs

An examination of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus groups' mean of teachers' perceptions of TB provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.13 and Figure 4.14). Points fell along the line required for a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents of TB with four values posting away from the line at the higher end of the means (see Figure 4.13).

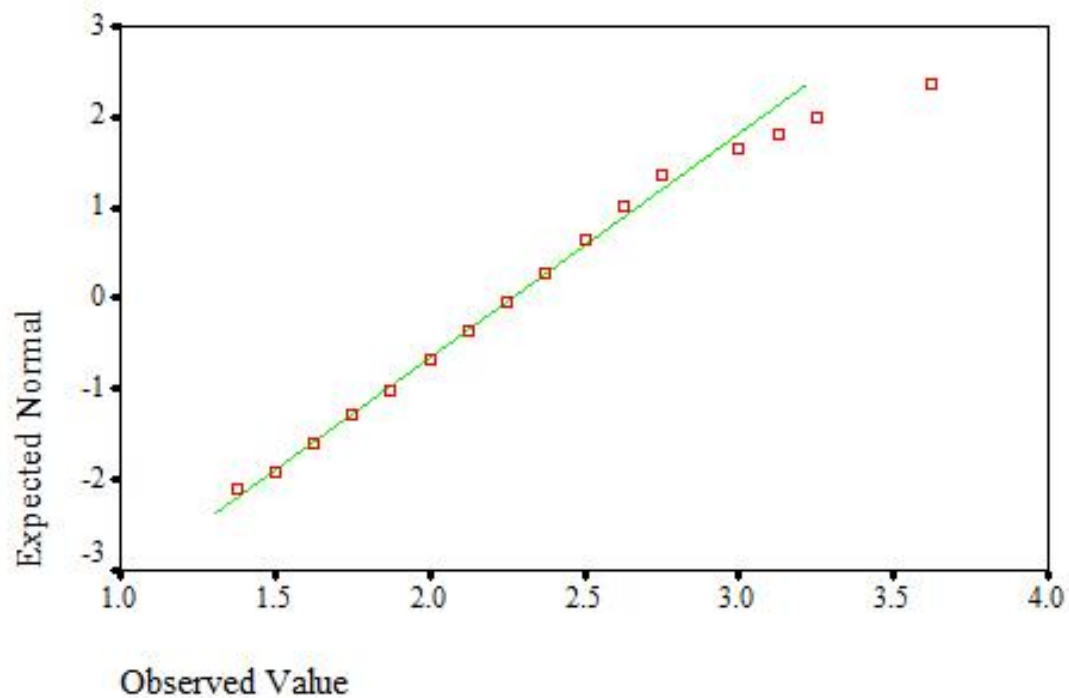


Figure 4.13 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents of TB concurred with the histogram reading a violation of normality (see Figure 4.14). Two respondents' means exceeded the line by .5 (see Figure 4.14). Upon examination of the plot, few values were in alignment with the Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents of TB line (see Figure 4.14).

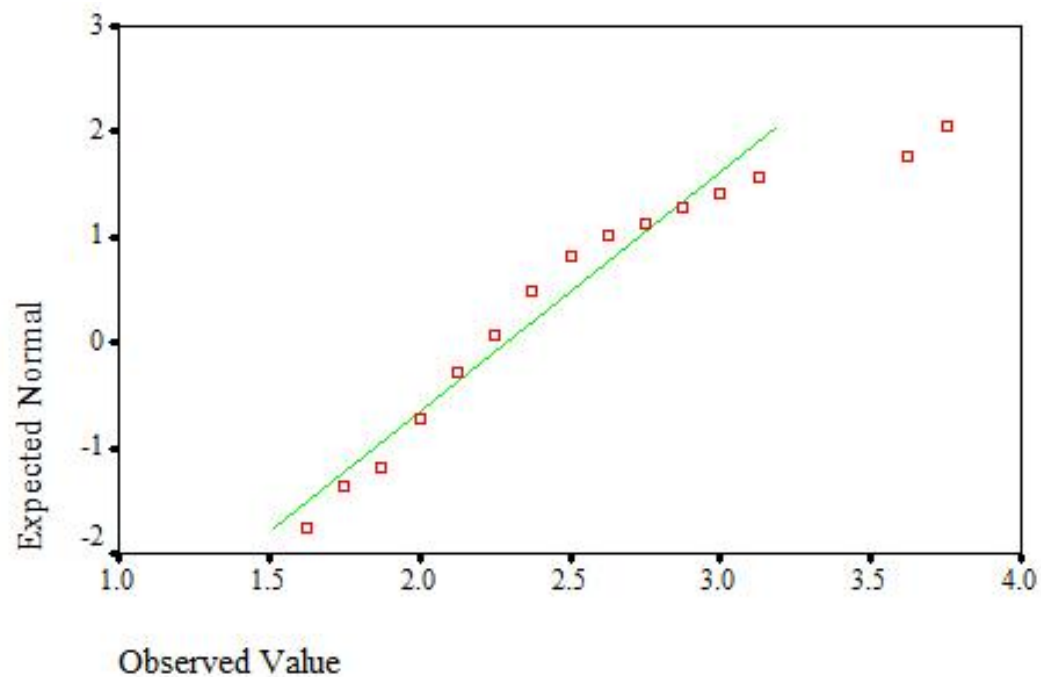


Figure 4.14 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Beliefs

Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group tested at .09 with a significance of .04, which indicated the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.14). The THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value of .18 with a significance of .00 verifying the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.14). The violation of a normal distribution required the use of non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was performed. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 81.33 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 78.68 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney score of 2,659.00 and a significance of .74, no significant difference was revealed in the means of TB between SLC and THS campus groups' teachers' perceptions at $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.15). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of the campus TB means' variance. The Levene's Test result of .00 with a significance of .97 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.15).

Table 4.15

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the
CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	110	81.33		
Traditional High School	50	78.68		
Mann Whitney U test			2,659.00	.74
Levene's			.00	.97

School Climate (SC)

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was used to examine the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of School Climate (SC) as measured by the CABI. A statistically significant difference was noted at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI scores for SC on the two campus groups: $F(1, 171) = 1.92, p = .01$. The SC factor presented means of 3.37 with a standard error of .05 for SLC campuses and 3.14 with a standard error of .07 for THS campuses (see Table 4.16). The difference between the two means was .23. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 3.41 for the SLC campuses and 3.16 for the THS campuses yielded a difference of .25. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007). The medians for both campus groups were 3.40 for the SLC campus group and 3.00 for the

THS campus group (see Table 4.16). The difference of the medians demonstrated a larger difference at .40 (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.16
School Climate Comparative Means
of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	3.37	3.14
N	120	53
Standard Error	.05	.07
5% Trimmed Mean	3.41	3.16
Median	3.40	3.00
Skewness	-1.06	-.45
Kurtosis	2.55	.59
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.12	.15
Significance	.00	.01

Analysis of the normality of the distributions of the SC means found -1.06 skewness for the SLC campus group and -.45 skewness for the THS campus group for the means of SC (see Table 4.16). SLC campus group skewness was negative, thereby

indicating the data being clustered at the higher end of the values (see Table 4.16).

Kurtosis for the SLC campus group was also negative, thus indicating the data to be flat (see Table 4.16). Further, examination of the histogram presenting the data for SLC campus group's respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.15). A lack of peaks was noted and the data was positively skewed toward the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.15).

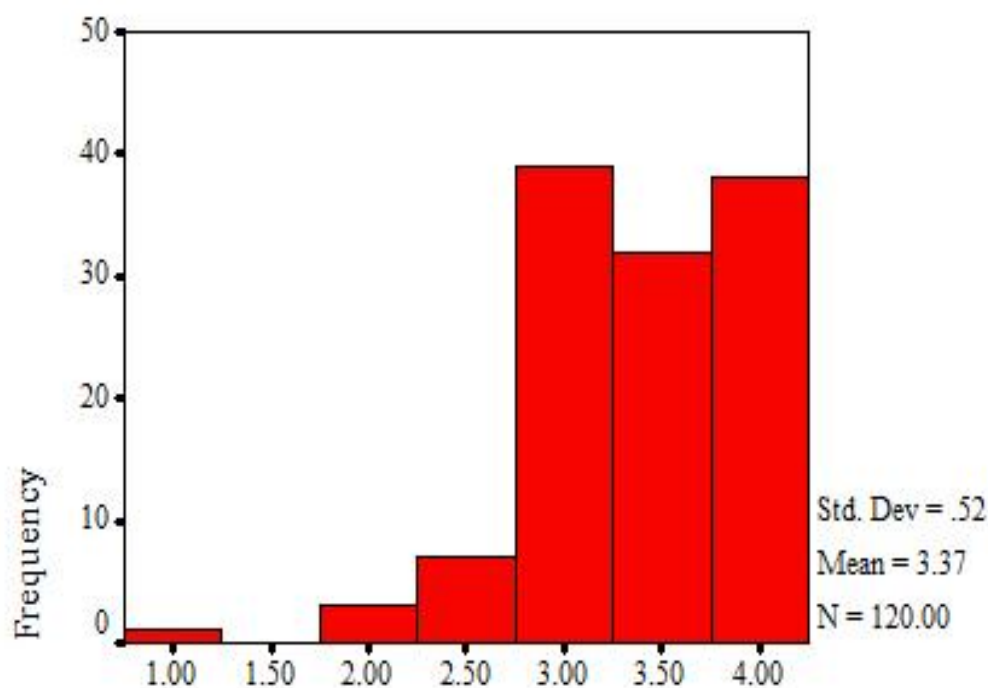


Figure 4.15 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the
SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate

In contrast, THS campus group's skewness for SC resulted in $-.45$, thus indicating the data to be located on the higher end of the values (see Table 4.16). Kurtosis for the THS campus group indicated a peaked distribution (see Table 4.16). Additional examination of the histogram of the data from THS campus group's respondents confirmed the numerical analysis determined by the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.16). The histogram lacked one major peak, but featured several small peaks scattered throughout the data. Further, the data was positively skewed toward the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.16).

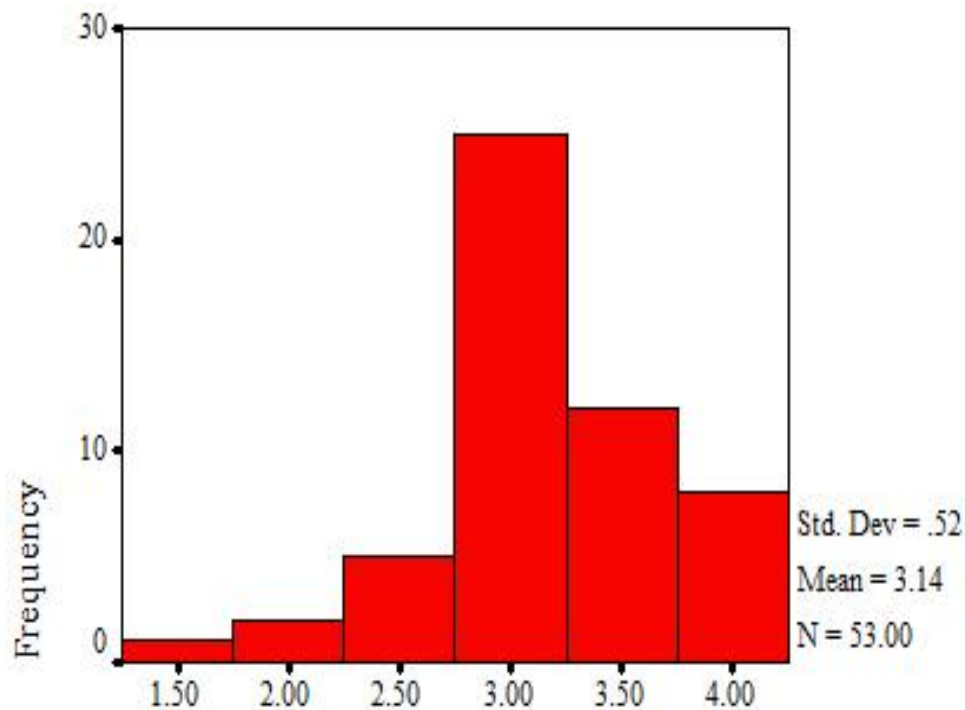


Figure 4.16 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate

The inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus groups' CABI mean on SC provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.17 and Figure 4.18). Several points fell along the line required of a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents with a few values posted away from the line at the lower end of the means (see Figure 4.17).

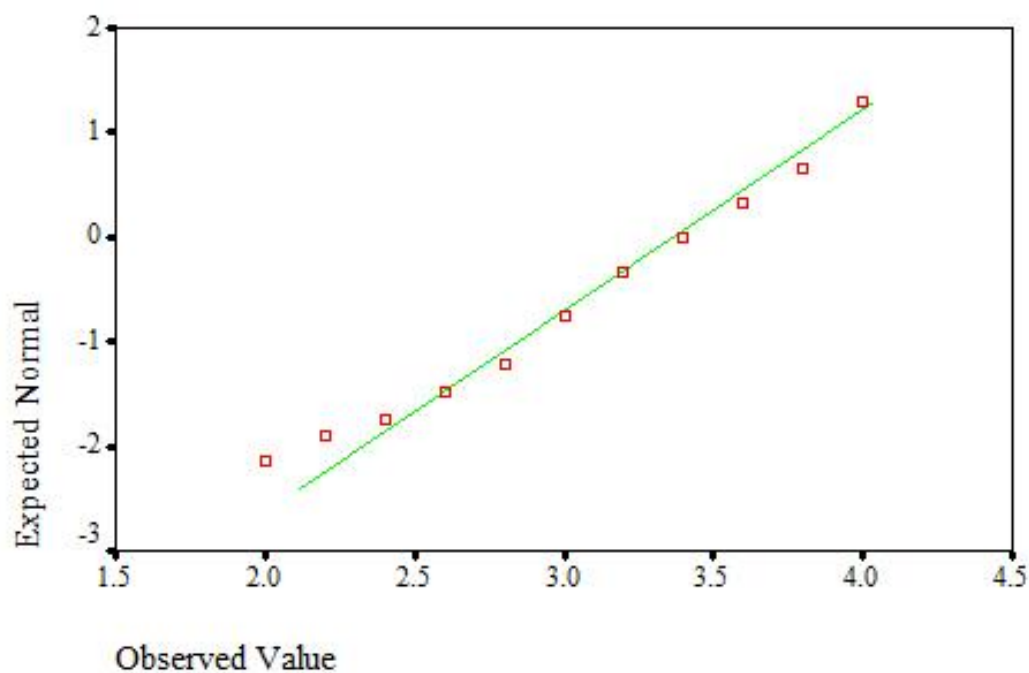


Figure 4.17 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' CABI means of SC concurred with the histogram, which read a violation of normality (see Figure 4.18). Several respondents' means veered from the line at the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.18).

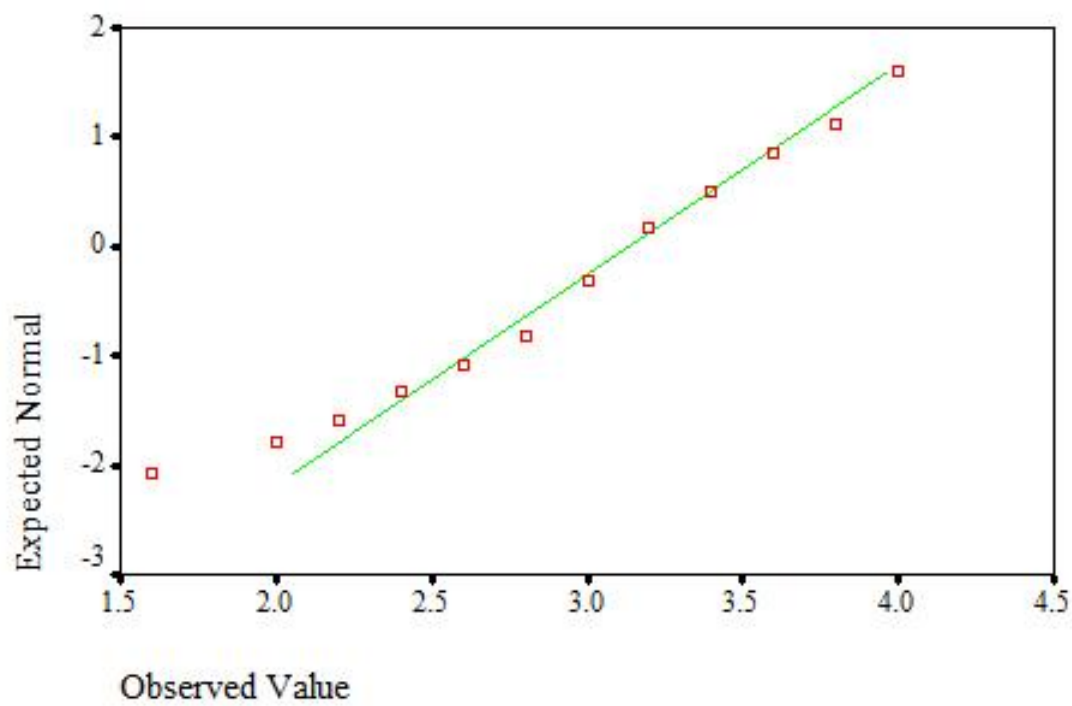


Figure 4.18 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on School Climate

Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group tested at .12 with a significance of .00, thereby indicating the violation of normality with $p < .05$ (see Table 4.16). The teachers' perceptions of the THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value of .15 with a significance of .01, thus verifying the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.16).

The violation of a normal distribution required the use on non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 94.05 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 71.04 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney score of 2,334.00 and a significance of .01, a statistically significant difference was revealed in the SC means of SLC and THS campus groups existed at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.17) (Pallant, 2007). The effect size, calculated utilizing Cohen's d , yielded a low effect size at $r = 0.2$ (Valentine & Cooper, 2003). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of the campus SC means' variance. The Levene's Test result of .05 with a significance of .83 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.17).

Table 4.17

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the
CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of School Climate

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	120	94.05		
Traditional High School	53	71.04		
Mann Whitney U test			2,334.00	.01
Levene's			.05	.83

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM)

The Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM) factor was examined by a one-way between-groups ANOVA to explore the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of CRCM as measured by the CABI. A lack of a significant difference was noted at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI means of CRCM for the two campus groups: $F(1, 169) = .35, p = .55$. CRCM presented means of 3.36 with a standard error of .05 for SLC campuses and 3.31 with a standard error of .07 for THS campuses (see Table 4.18). The difference between the two means was .05. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 3.41 for the SLC campuses and 3.34 for the THS campuses yielded a difference of .07. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007).

However, the differences failed to hold true for the medians. The medians for the SLC campus group reported at 3.33, while the THS campus group reported a median of 3.00 (see Table 4.18). The difference in the medians resulted in .33 which was greater than the differences between the means. Analysis of the normality of the distributions found negative skewness for both campus groups' means of CRCM. SLC campus group skewness was -.65 indicating the data to be clustered at the higher end of the values (see Table 4.18). Kurtosis for the SLC campus group was .71, which indicated the data to be rather flat and lacking a single peak (see Table 4.18).

Examination of the histogram of the data for SLC campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.19). There was a lack of a single peak in the data and the data was negatively skewed toward the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.19).

THS campus group's skewness was slightly negative, thus indicating the data to be on the higher end of the values for CRCM (see Table 4.18). Kurtosis for the THS campus group of -.26 indicated a flat distribution (see Table 4.18). Examination of the histogram for the data representing the THS campus group's respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.20). The histogram lacked one major peak, but featured several small peaks scattered throughout the data. Additionally, the data was negatively skewed toward the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.20).

Table 4.18

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Comparative Means
of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	3.36	3.31
N	119	52
Standard Error	.05	.07
5% Trimmed Mean	3.41	3.34
Median	3.33	3.00
Skewness	-.65	-.17
Kurtosis	.71	-.26
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.24	.24
Significance	.00	.00

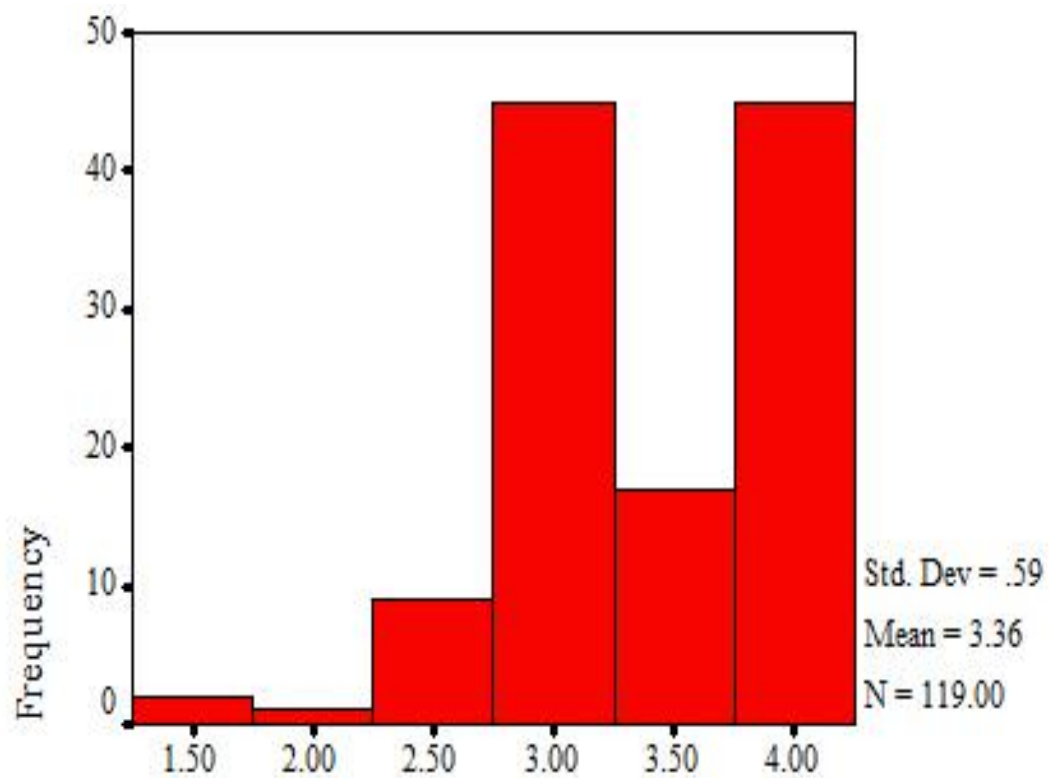


Figure 4.19 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

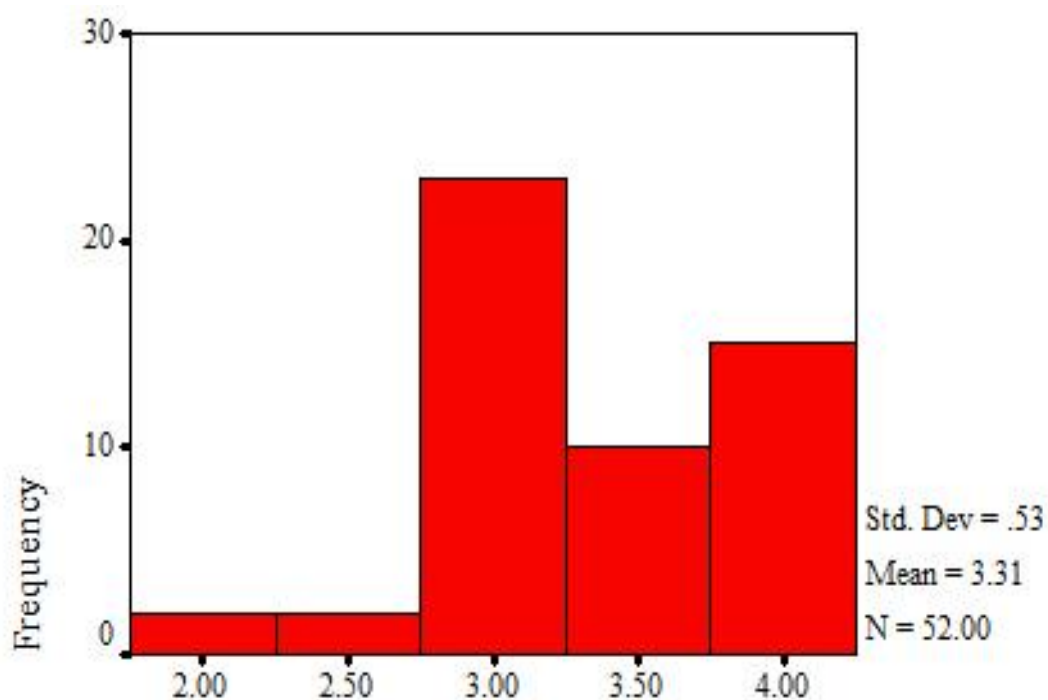


Figure 4.20 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

The inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus group's perceptions of the CRCM mean provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.21 and Figure 4.22). Few points fell along the line required of a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on CRCM with several values posted away from the line at the higher and lower ends of the means (see Figure 4.21).

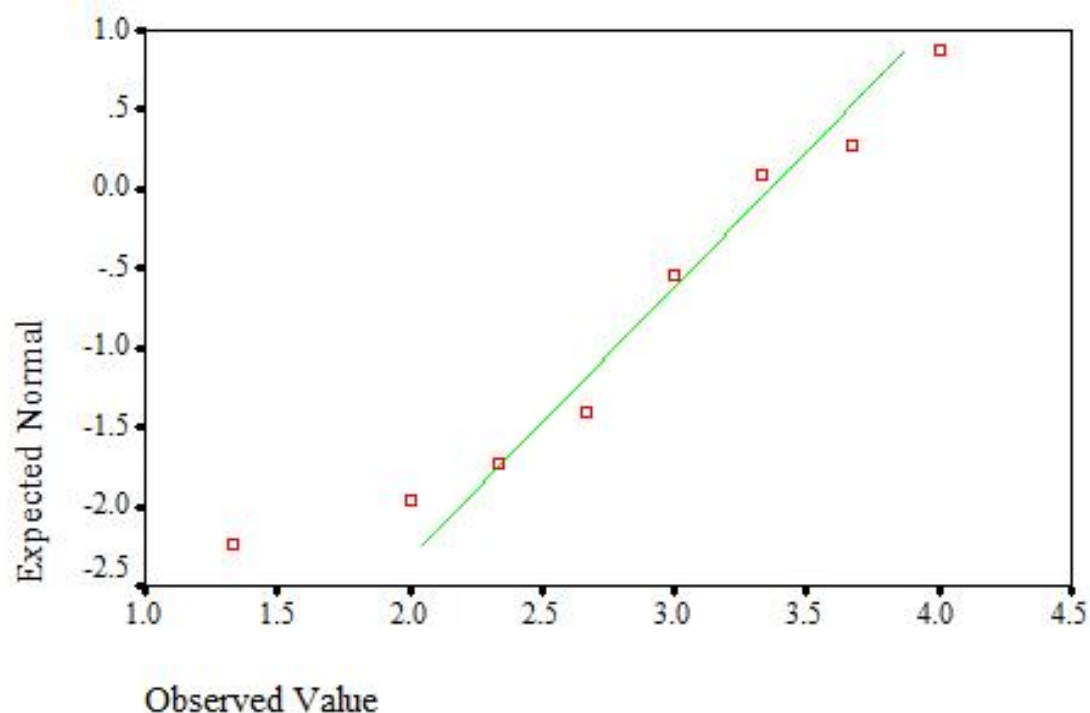


Figure 4.21 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS campus group's CRCM means concurred with the histogram, thereby denoting a violation of normality (see Figure 4.22). Upon examination of the plot, few values were in alignment with the Normal Q-Q Plot line (see Figure 4.22). Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group tested at .24 with a significance of .00, which indicated the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.18). The THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value

of .24 with a significance of .00, thereby verifying the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.18).

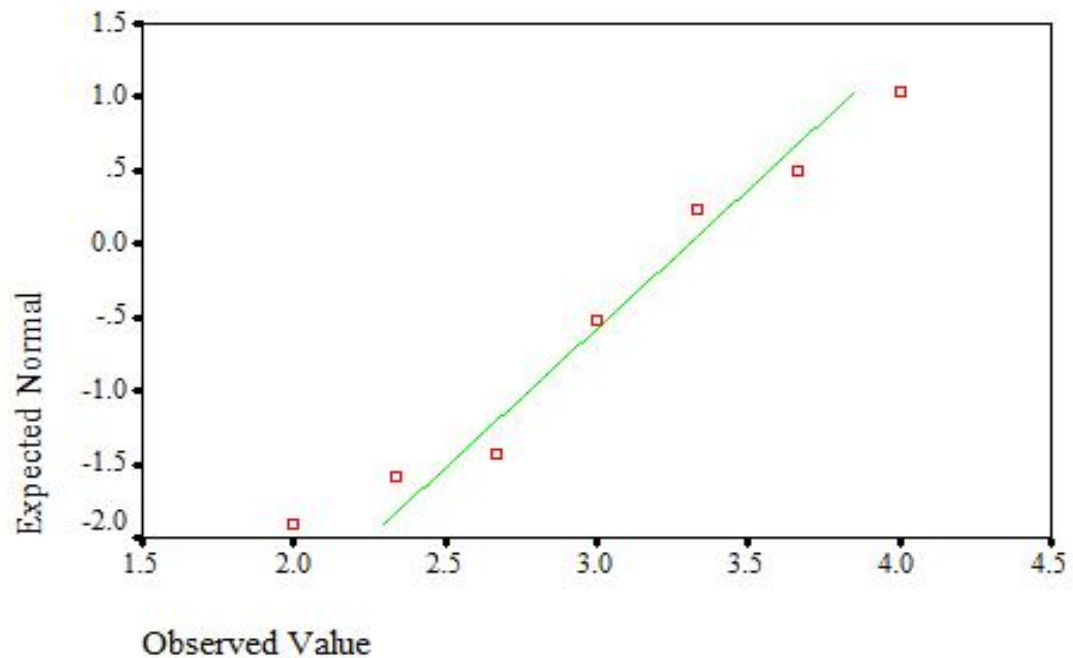


Figure 4.22 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

The violation of a normal distribution required the use of non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 87.49 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 82.59 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney score of 2,916.50 and a significance of .53, a lack of significant difference was revealed in the CRCM means of

both SLC and THS campus groups at $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.19). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of the campus CRCM means' variance. The Levene's Test result of 1.44 with a significance of .23 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.19).

Table 4.19

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents
by Campus Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	119	87.49		
Traditional High School	52	82.59		
Mann Whitney U test			2,916.50	.53
Levene's			1.44	.23

Home and Community Support (HCS)

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was used to examine the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of HCS as measured by the CABI. A lack of a statistically significant difference was found at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI means for HCS of both campus groups: $F(1, 165) = 2.21, p = .14$. The HCS factor examined

presented means of 2.77 with a standard error of .06 for SLC campuses and 2.91 with a standard error of .08 for THS campuses (see Table 4.20). The difference between the two means was .14. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.77 for the SLC campuses and 2.90 for the THS campuses yielded a difference of .13. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007).

However, the differences failed to hold true for the medians. The medians for both campus groups were equal at 2.75 (see Table 4.20). The medians indicated a lack of significant difference between the teachers' perceptions of CRCM by campus group. Analysis of the normality of the distributions found negative skewness for the SLC campus group and positive skewness for the THS campus group for the means of CRCM. SLC campus group skewness was $-.30$, thereby indicating the data to be clustered toward the higher end of the values (see Table 4.20). Kurtosis for the SLC campus group's perceptions was $.10$, which specified that a peak was visible in the center of the data (see Table 4.20).

Examination of the histogram of the data for SLC campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.23). One peak was noted in the center and the data was negatively skewed toward the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.23). In contrast, the THS campus group skewness was $.28$, thereby indicating the data to be on the lower end of the values for HCS (see Table 4.20). Kurtosis of $-.60$ for the THS campus group determined a "rather flat" distribution (Pallant, 2007, p. 56) (see Table 4.20).

Table 4.20

Home and Community Support Comparative Means
of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	2.77	2.91
N	118	49
Standard Error	.06	.08
5% Trimmed Mean	2.77	2.90
Median	2.75	2.75
Skewness	-.30	.28
Kurtosis	.10	-.60
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.14	.17
Significance	.00	.00

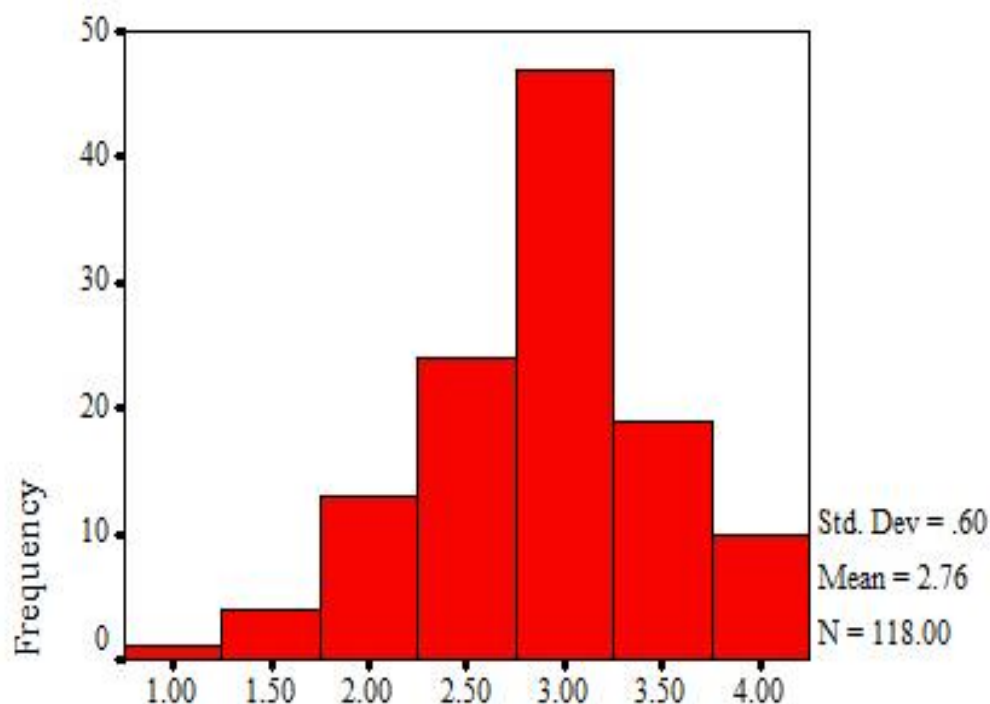


Figure 4.23 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home Community Support

Examination of the histogram of the data for THS campus group's respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.24). One peak was noted on the histogram, but several small peaks were found scattered throughout the data near the peak. Further, the data was negatively skewed but appeared spread throughout the range of data (see Figure 4.24).

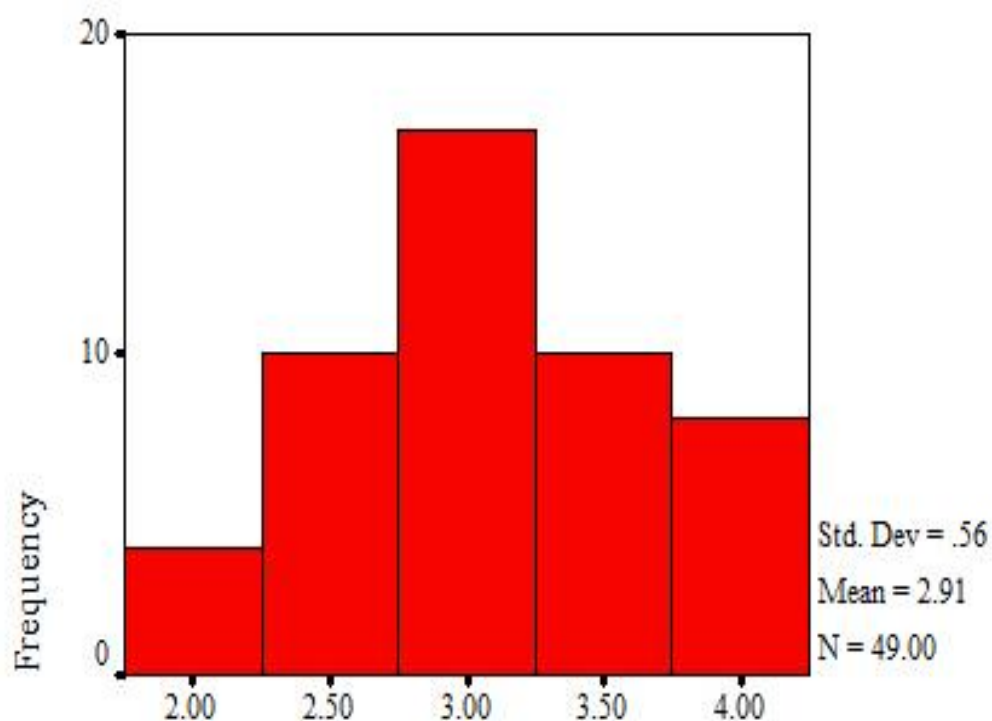


Figure 4.24 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home Community Support

The inspection of the Normal Q-Q plots for each campus group's CABI mean of HCS provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.25 and Figure 4.25). However, most of the points fell along the line required of a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on HCS (see Figure 4.25). Therefore, the distribution was nearly normal.

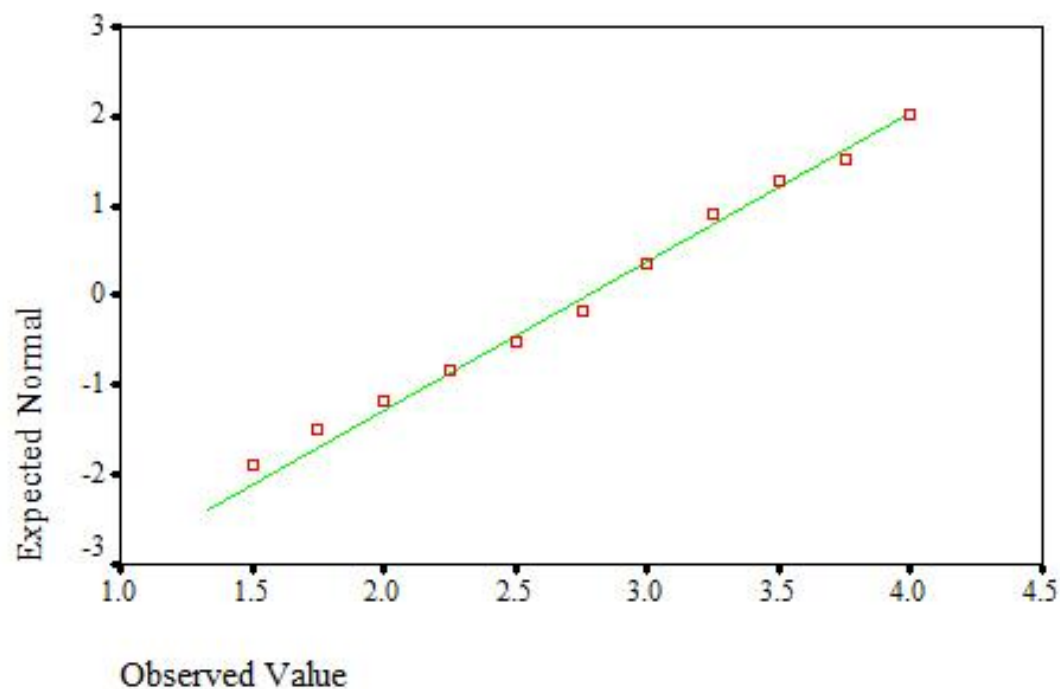


Figure 4.25 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home and Community Support

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' CABI means concurred with the histogram reading a violation of normality (see Figure 4.26). Two respondents' means exceeded the line marginally (see Figure 4.26). Upon examination of the plot, most values were in alignment with the line of the Normal Q-Q Plot (see Figure 4.26).

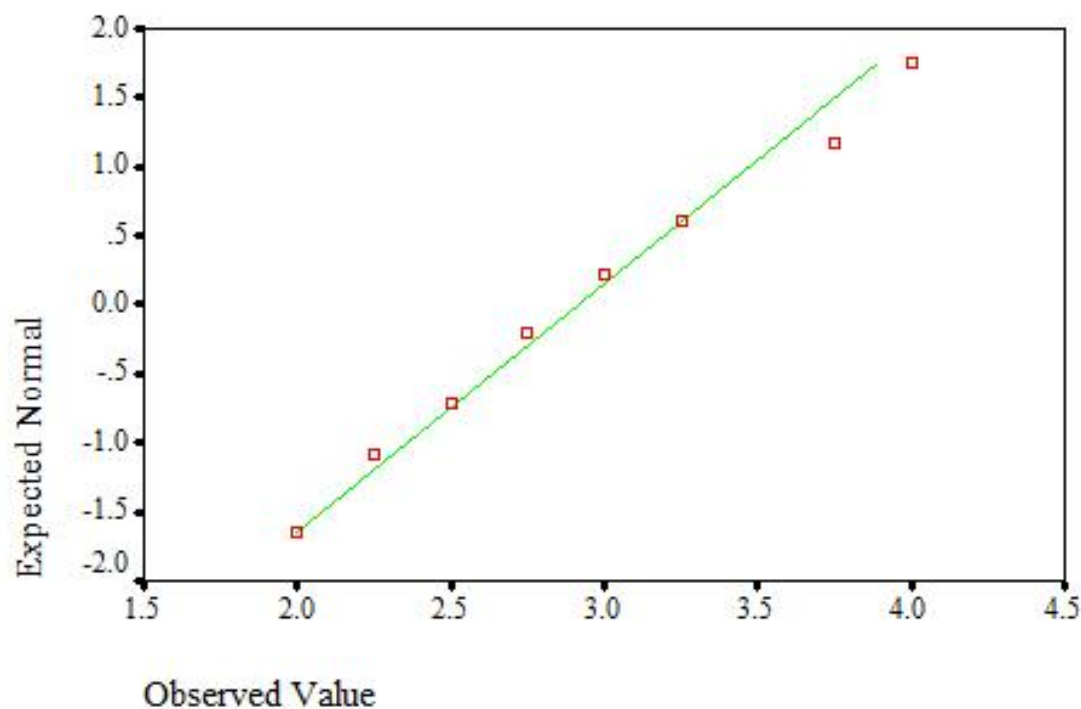


Figure 4.26 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Home and Community Support

Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group tested at .14 with a significance of .00, thereby indicating the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.20). The THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value of .17 with a significance of .00, thereby verifying the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.20).

The violation of a normal distribution required the use on non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 81.44 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 90.17 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney score of 2,588.50 and a significance of .28, no significant difference existed in the means of the teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness for both the SLC and THS campus groups at $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.21). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of the campus HCS means' variance. The Levene's Test result of .02, with a significance of .88, indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.21).

Table 4.21

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents
by Campus Groups of Home and Community Support

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	118	81.44		
Traditional High School	49	90.17		
Mann Whitney U test			2,558.50	.28
Levene's			.02	.88

Curriculum and Instructional Strategies (CI)

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was utilized to determine the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of CI as measured by the CABI. A lack of a statistically significant difference was noted at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI scores of CI for the two campus groups: $F(1, 162) = .13, p = .72$. The CI factor examined presented means of 2.98 with a standard error of .04 for SLC campuses and a mean of 2.96 with a standard error of .07 for THS campuses (see Table 4.22). The difference between the two means was .02. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.99 for the SLC campuses and 2.96 for the THS campuses yielded a difference of .04. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007). However, the differences remained small between the CI medians for the two campus groups. The SLC's median for CI was 3.00, and the THS's median for CI was 2.75 (see Table 4.22). The difference of medians increased to .25.

Analysis of the normality of the distributions of the CI means found negative skewness for the SLC campus group and positive skewness for the THS campus group. SLC campus group skewness was $-.18$ indicating the data to be slightly clustered toward the higher end of the values (see Table 4.22). Kurtosis for the SLC campus group measured $.27$, thereby signifying the data has a single peak near the center of the values (see Table 4.22). Examination of the histogram of the data for SLC campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.27). One peak was noted in the center of the data. Further, the data was slightly skewed toward the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.27).

Table 4.22

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus
Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	2.98	2.96
N	114	50
Standard Error	.04	.07
5% Trimmed Mean	2.99	2.96
Median	3.00	2.75
Skewness	-.18	.15
Kurtosis	.27	.61
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.14	.19
Significance	.00	.00

In contrast, the THS campus group skewness measured .15, thereby indicating the data to be toward the center of the values for CI (see Table 4.22). Kurtosis for the THS campus group of .61 indicated a single peak distribution (see Table 4.22). An examination of the histogram of the data for THS campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.28). The histogram featured one major peak in the center of the data and the data was positively skewed yet nearly normal (see Figure 4.28).

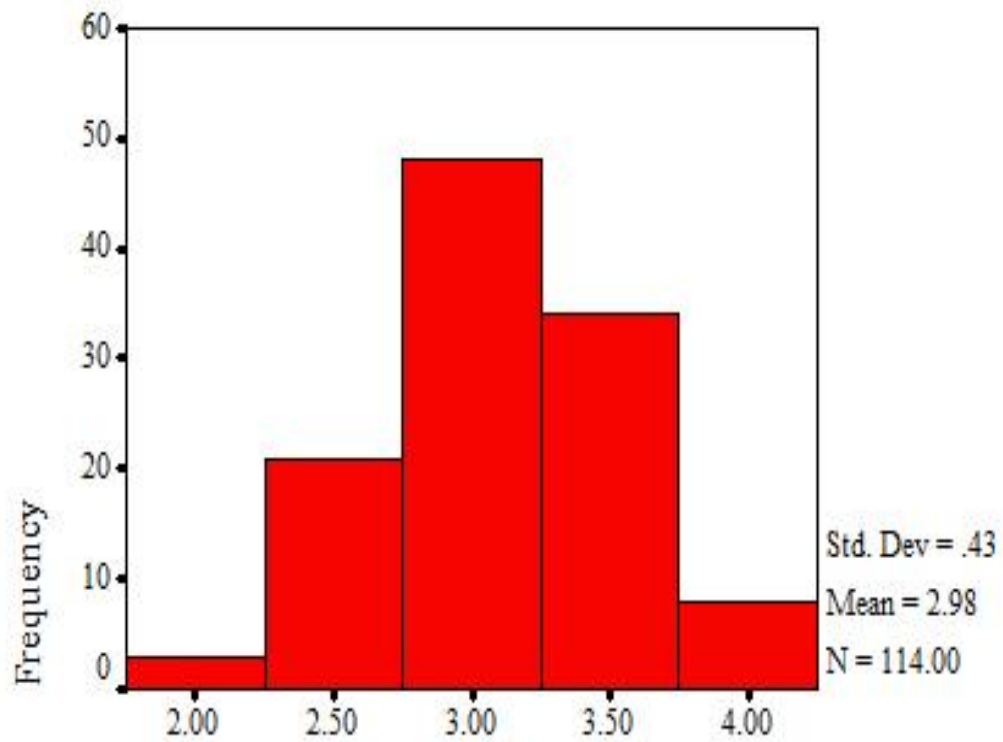


Figure 4.27 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

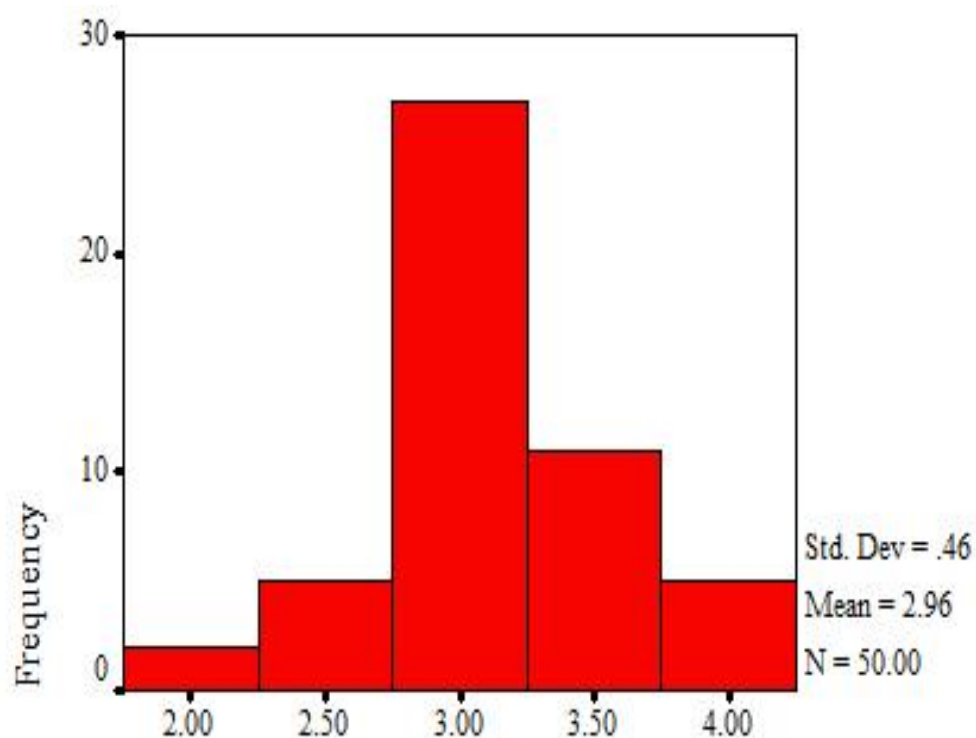


Figure 4.28 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

The inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus group's CABI mean of CI provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.29 and Figure 4.30). Most points fell along the line required for a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on CI with two values posted away from the line at the lower end of the means (see Figure 4.29).

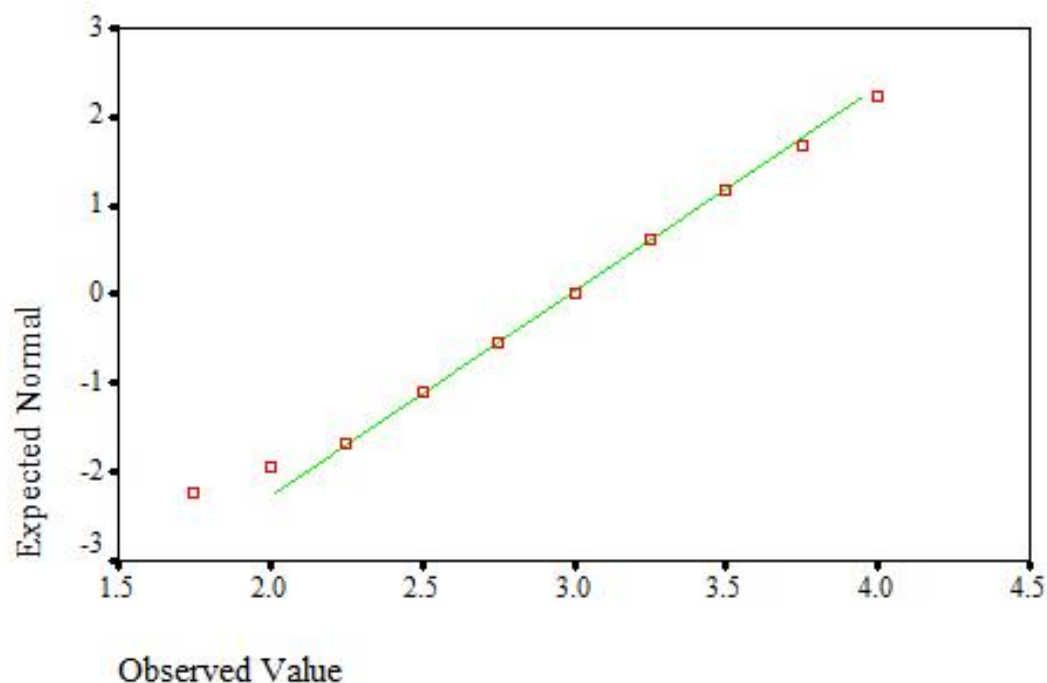


Figure 4.29 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' CABI means on CI concurred with the histogram reading of a violation of normality (see Figure 4.30). Two respondents' means exceeded the line at the large end of the values, while two additional points were found at the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.30). Upon examination of the plot, few values were in alignment with the Normal Q-Q Plot line (see Figure 4.30).

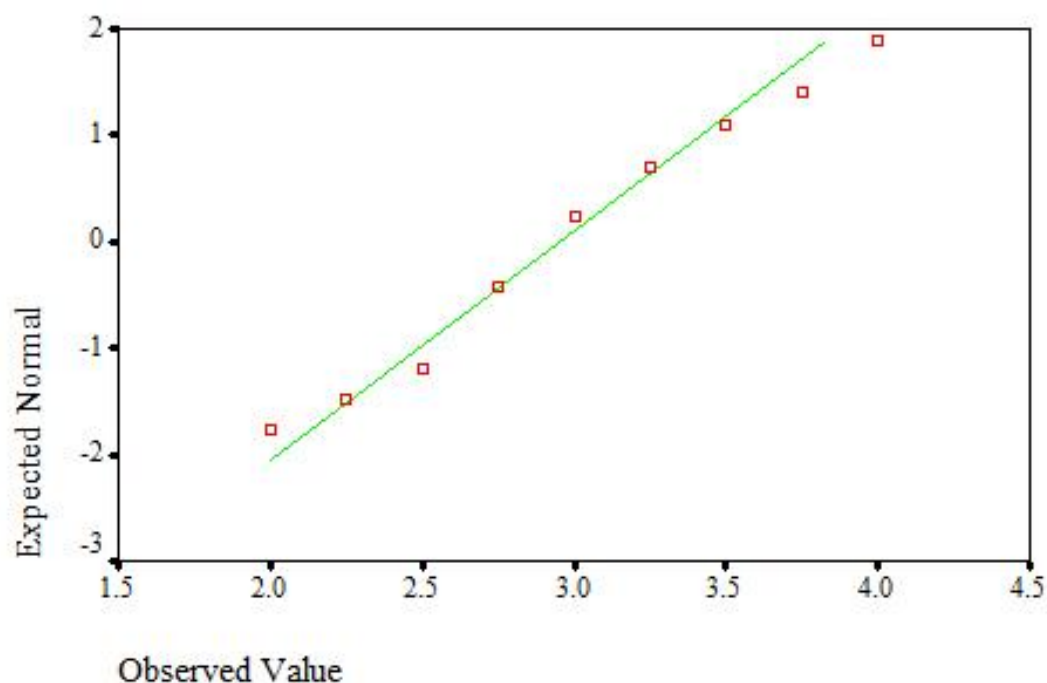


Figure 4.30 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group tested at .14 with a significance of .00, thereby indicating the violation of normality (see Table 4.22). The THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value of .19 with a significance of .00, which also verified the violation of normality with $p < .05$ (see Table 4.22). The violation of a normal distribution required the use of non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in

rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 84.00 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 79.08 ranking. A large Mann Whitney score of 2,679.00 and a significance of .53 revealed no statistically significant difference in the CI means of SLC and THS campus groups' perceptions at $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.23). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of the campus CI means' variance. The Levene's Test result of .17 with a significance of .68 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.23).

Table 4.23

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents
by Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	114	84.00		
Traditional High School	50	79.08		
Mann Whitney U test			2,679.00	.53
Levene's			.17	.68

Cultural Sensitivity (CS)

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of campus group on the teachers' perceptions of Cultural Sensitivity as measured by the

CABI. There was a lack of a significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the CABI scores for CS of the two campus groups: $F(1, 163) = .21, p = .65$. The CS factor presented means of 1.73 with a standard error of .05 for SLC campuses and a mean of 1.77 with a standard error of .08 for THS campuses (see Table 4.24). The difference between the two means was slight at .04. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 1.71 for the SLC campuses and 1.74 for the THS campuses yielded a difference of .03. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007).

However, the differences between the two campus groups' medians for CS increased. The median for SLC campus group was 1.67 and the median for THS campus group was 1.70 (see Table 4.24). The difference in the medians equaled the means' difference at .03. Analysis of the normality of the distributions for the CS means found positive skewness for both the SLC and the THS campus groups. The SLC campus group skewness measured .24, thereby indicating the data to be clustered at the lower end of the values (see Table 4.24). Kurtosis for the SLC campus group was -.30 indicating the data to have a flat distribution (see Table 4.24).

Examination of the data of the histogram for SLC campus group's respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.31). One slight peak was noted in the data and the data was positively skewed toward the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.31).

Table 4.24

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents
by Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	1.73	1.77
N	114	51
Standard Error	.05	.08
5% Trimmed Mean	1.71	1.74
Median	1.67	1.70
Skewness	.24	.73
Kurtosis	-.30	.61
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.16	.16
Significance	.00	.00

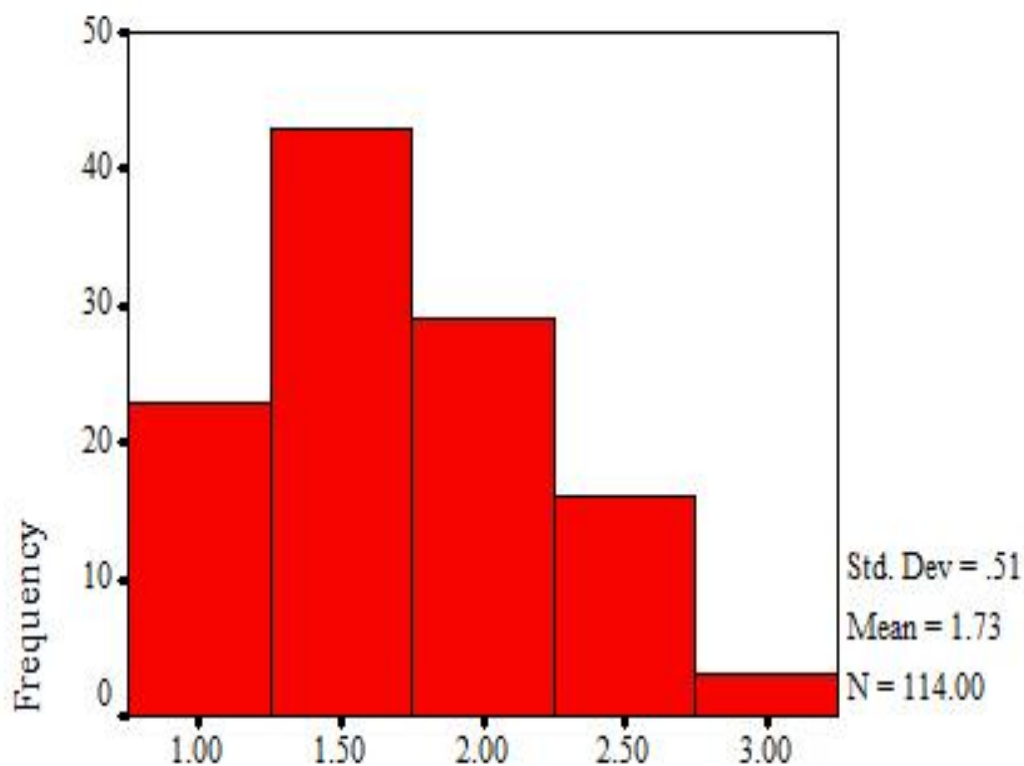


Figure 4.31 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Sensitivity

Quite the opposite, THS campus group's skewness was found at .73, thus indicating the CS data to be located on the lower end of the values (see Table 4.24). Kurtosis for the THS campus group of .61 indicated a peaked distribution (see Table 4.24). Examination of the histogram of the data for THS campus group's respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.32). The histogram had one major peak in the data and it was positively skewed toward the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.32).

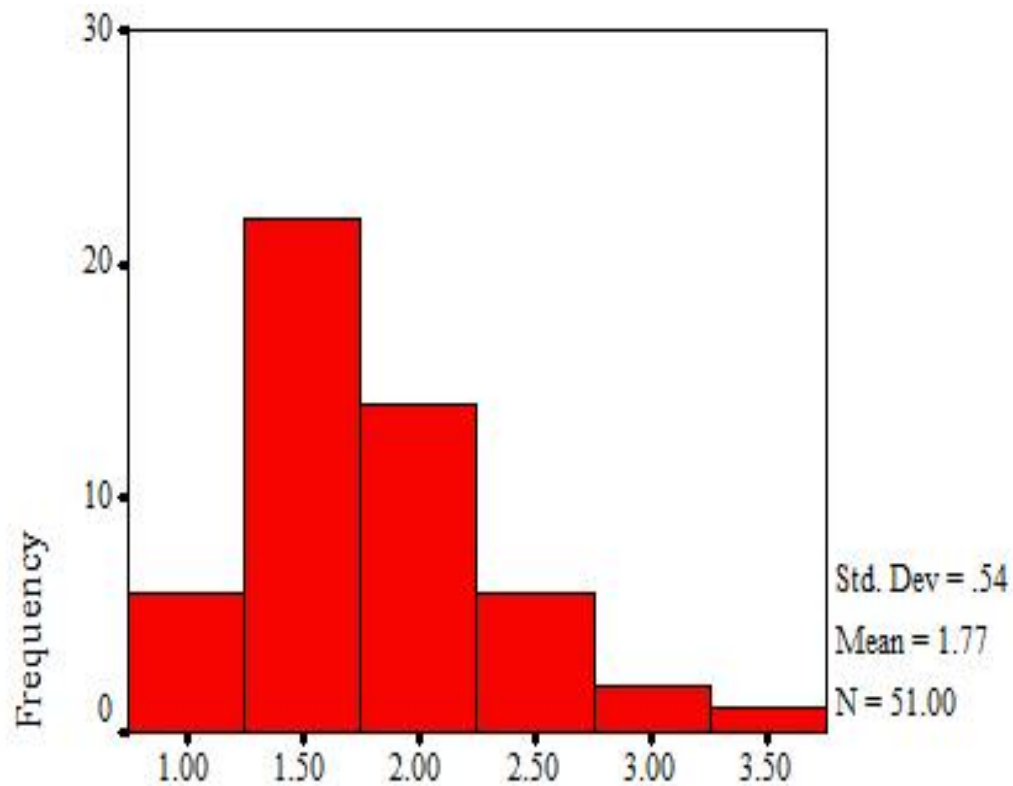


Figure 4.32 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Sensitivity

The inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus group's CABI mean of CS provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.33 and Figure 4.34). Most of the CS values fell along the line required of a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents. Two values posted away from the line at the higher end of the means and one value posted away from the line at the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.33).

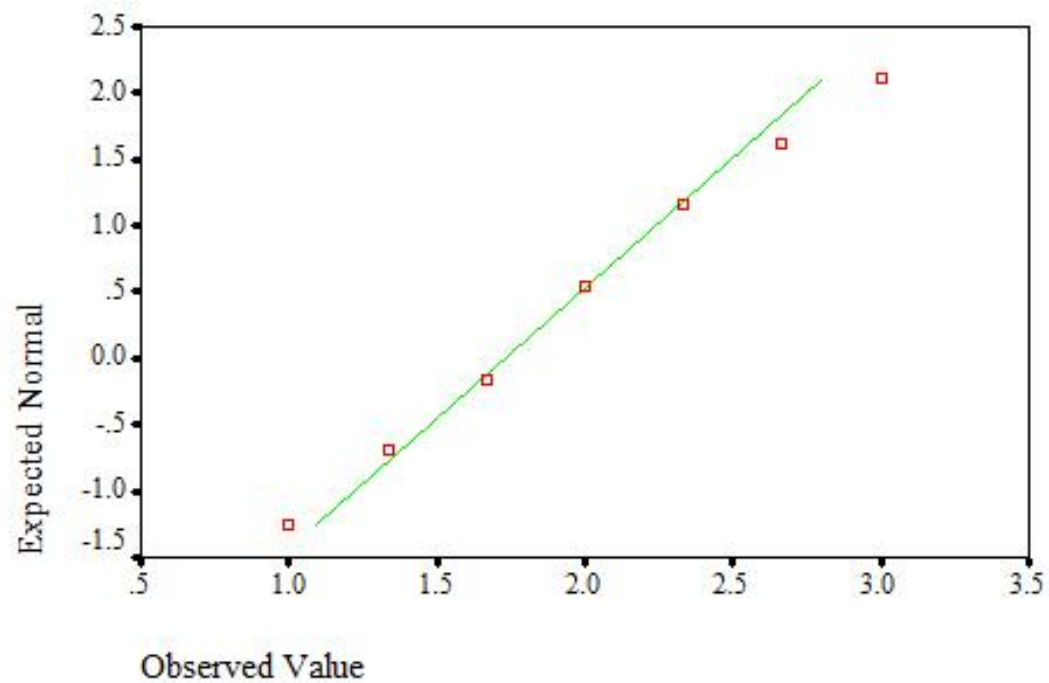


Figure 4.33 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Sensitivity

The Normal Q-Q Plot for CS of the THS Campuses' CABI means of CS concurred with the histogram's reading of a violation of normality (see Figure 4.34). Three respondents' means exceeded the line at the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.34).

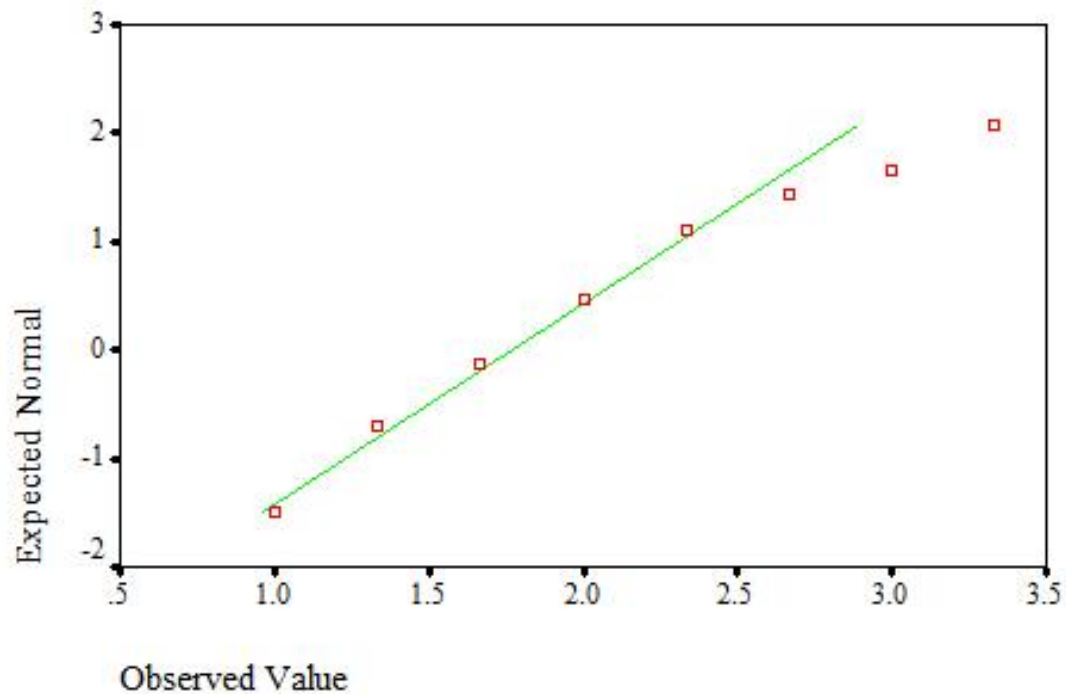


Figure 4.34 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Cultural Sensitivity

Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group tested at .16 with a significance of .00, thereby indicating a violation of normality (see Table 4.24). The THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value of .16 with a significance of .00 also verifying the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.24). The violation of a normal distribution required the use of non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means in rank

order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 82.39 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 84.37 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney score of 2,837.00 and a significance of .80, no statistically significant difference was found in the CS means of SLC and THS campus groups with $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.25). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of both campus groups' CS means' variance. The Levene's Test result of .25 with a significance of .65 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.25).

Table 4.25

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's
Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	114	82.39		
Traditional High School	51	84.37		
Mann Whitney U test			2,837.00	.80
Levene's			.25	.62

Teacher Efficacy (TE)

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was used to explore the impact of campus group of the teachers' perceptions of Teacher Efficacy as measured by the CABI. A lack of a statistically significant difference was noted at the $p < .05$ level in the teachers' perceptions of TE between the two campus groups: $F(1, 162) = .82, p = .37$. The TE factor examined presented SLC means of 2.66 with a standard error of .05 and THS means of 2.74 with a standard error of .07 (see Table 4.26). The difference between the two TE means was .08. The 5% Trimmed Mean of 2.66 for the SLC campuses and a 2.72 for the THS campuses yielded a difference of .06. As these means fell within a close range to the original means, the data appeared to be uninfluenced by outliers (Pallant, 2007).

However, the differences failed to hold true for the medians. The medians for both campus groups were equal at 2.75 (see Table 4.26). The equal medians indicated a lack of a statistically significant difference between the teachers' perceptions of TE by campus group. Analysis of the normality of the distributions found negative skewness for the SLC campus group and positive skewness for the THS campus group for the means of TE. SLC campus group skewness was -.12 indicating the data to be clustered at the higher end of the values (see Table 4.26). Kurtosis for the SLC campus group was .50 indicating the data to be peaked (see Table 4.26). Examination of the histogram of the data for SLC campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.35). One peak was noted near the center of

the data, and the data was negatively skewed toward the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.35).

Table 4.26

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups of
Teacher Efficacy

Campus Type	Small Learning Community	Traditional High School
Mean	2.66	2.74
N	114	50
Standard Error	.05	.07
5% Trimmed Mean	2.66	2.72
Median	2.75	2.75
Skewness	-.12	.49
Kurtosis	.50	-.30
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.13	.15
Significance	.00	.01

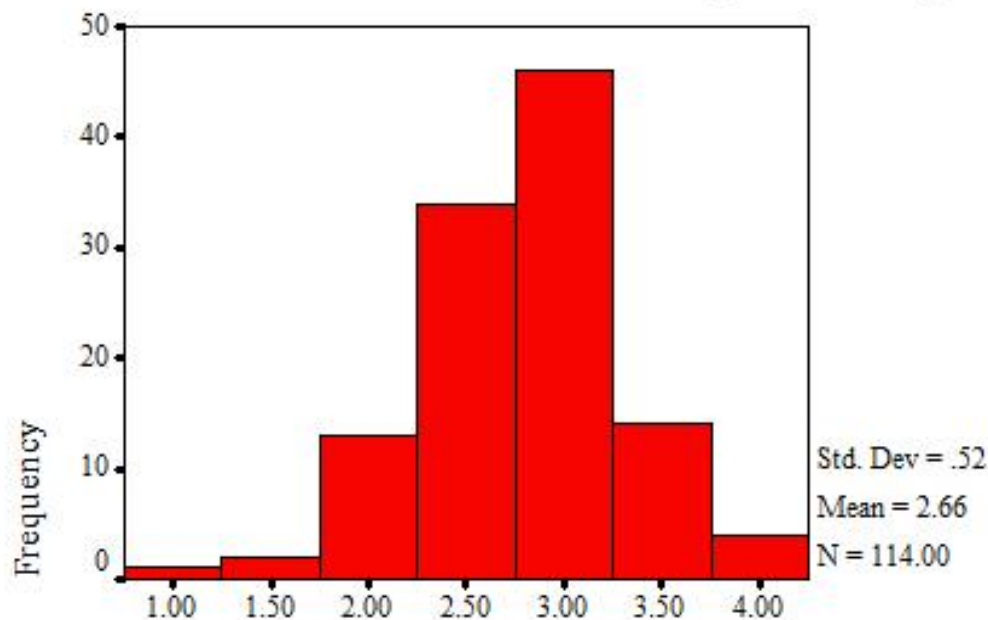


Figure 4.35 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the
SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy

In contrast, THS campus group's skewness for TE was .positive, thereby indicating the data to be located on the lower end of the values for TE (see Table 4.26). Kurtosis for the THS campus group of -.30 indicated a lack of a single peak for the distribution (see Table 4.26). Examination of the histogram of the data for THS campus group respondents confirmed the numerical analysis from the skewness and kurtosis statistics (see Figure 4.36). The histogram lacked one major peak, but featured several small peaks scattered throughout the data. Further, the data was positively skewed toward the lower end of the values (see Figure 4.36).

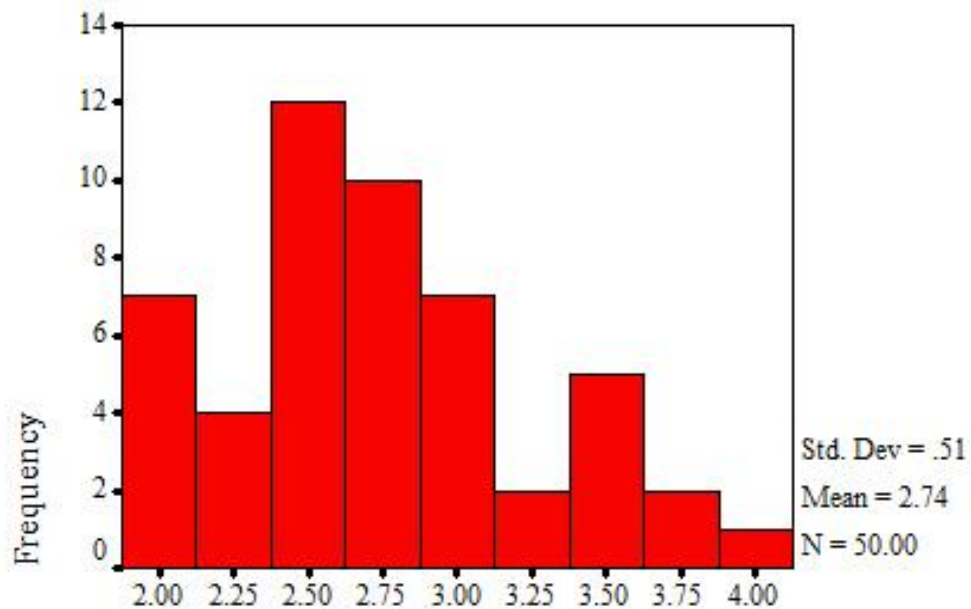


Figure 4.36 Histogram of the Comparative Means of the
THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy

An inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots for each campus group's CABI mean provided further confirmation that the assumption of a normal distribution for each campus had been violated (see Figure 4.37 and Figure 4.38). However, few points fell away from the line required of a normal distribution on the Normal Q-Q Plot for SLC campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on TE (see Figure 4.37). The Normal Q-Q Plot demonstrated that the violation of normality was slight (Pallant, 2007).

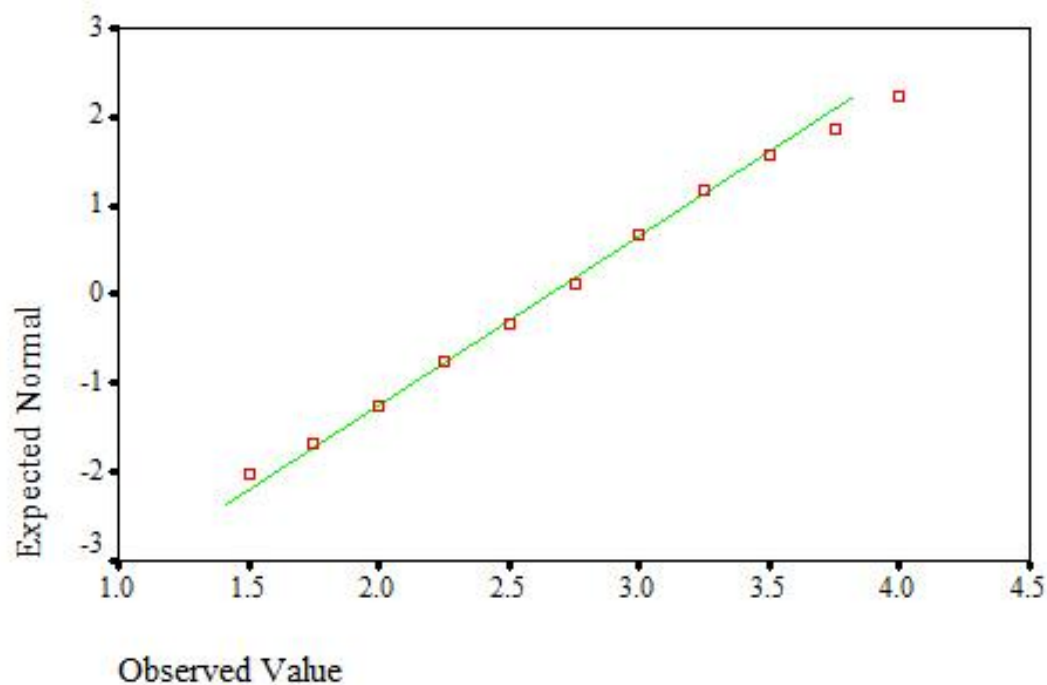


Figure 4.37 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the SLC Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy

The Normal Q-Q Plot for THS Campuses' CABI means of TE concurred with the histogram's reading of a violation of normality (see Figure 4.38). Several respondents' means of TE exceeded the line at the higher end of the values (see Figure 4.38).

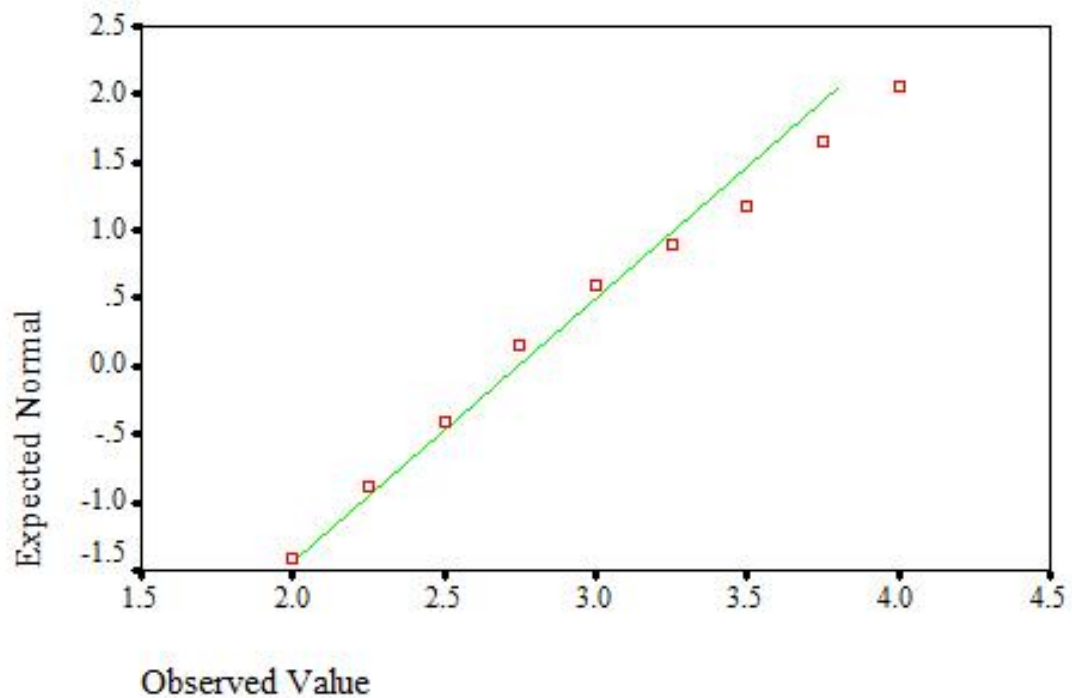


Figure 4.38 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Comparative Means of the THS Campuses' Ninth Grade Respondents on Teacher Efficacy

Final verification of the violation of normality was found using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic for each campus group. The SLC campus group tested at .13 with a significance of .00, thereby indicating a violation of normality (see Table 4.26). The THS campus group resulted in a Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value of .15 with a significance of .01 verifying the violation of normality at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.26).

The violation of a normal distribution required the utilization of non-parametric tests. As there were only two groups and no assumption of normality could be proven, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The Mann Whitney U Test arranged the means

in rank order. For the CABI means, the SLC mean calculated a 81.32 ranking and the THS mean calculated a 85.20 ranking. With a large Mann Whitney score of 2,715.00 and a significance of .63, no statistically significant difference was determined in the TE means of SLC and THS campus groups at $p < .05$ (Pallant, 2007) (see Table 4.27). The Levene's Test for homogeneity of variances required interpretation of the campus TE means' variance. The Levene's Test result of .05 with a significance of .83 indicated the assumption of homogeneity of variance to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.27).

Table 4.27

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents
by Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy

	N	Mean Rank	Statistic	Significance
Small Learning Community	114	81.32		
Traditional High School	50	85.20		
Mann Whitney U test			2,715.00	.63
Levene's			.05	.83

A review of the teachers' perceptions of the CABI using the means and standard errors of the eight factors resulted in means ranging from 1.73 to 3.37 with standard errors ranging from .02 to .08. The standard error determined "the probable range within

which the individual's true score falls" (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003, p. 199). Given the small size of the standard errors, it could be construed that the means closely represented the true scores of both groups of the CABI respondents for this study.

Table 4.28

Means and Medians of Ninth Grade Teachers by Campus Groups,
Teachers' Perceptions of the Eight Factors as Measured by the CABI

Groups	N	SLC Mean	SLC Medians	N	THS Mean	THS Medians
CABI	121	2.77	2.75	53	2.77	2.76
CA	116	3.08	3.00	50	2.99	3.00
TB	110	2.26	2.25	50	2.29	2.25
SC	120	3.37	3.40	53	3.14	3.00
CRCM	119	3.36	3.33	52	3.31	3.00
HCS	118	2.77	2.75	49	2.91	2.75
CI	114	2.98	3.00	50	2.96	2.75
CS	114	1.73	1.67	51	1.77	1.70
TE	114	2.66	2.75	50	2.74	2.75

Although the CABI means were identical for both campus groups, the mean of the eight factors differed by campus group. The factor with the highest mean for SLC campuses was SC with a mean of 3.37. Following closely was the CRCM mean of 3.36. Although failing to score as high as the SLC campus group, the THS campus group mean for CRCM was similar at 3.31. Yet CRCM placed first for the THS campus group, and SC at 3.14 was the second highest mean for the THS campus group. The ranking of the teacher perceptions' of the other six factors by campuses groups presented the exact same following ranked order: CA, CI, HCS, TE, TB, and CS. The CS means were low as all three items were reverse scored (see Figure 4.39). An examination of the graph indicated the lines overlapped and the differentiation between the means to be minute (see Figure 4.39). With little differentiation between the teacher perceptions' of the eight factors, the examination of the subgroups within the respondents gained importance in determining differences between SLC campus groups and THS campus groups.

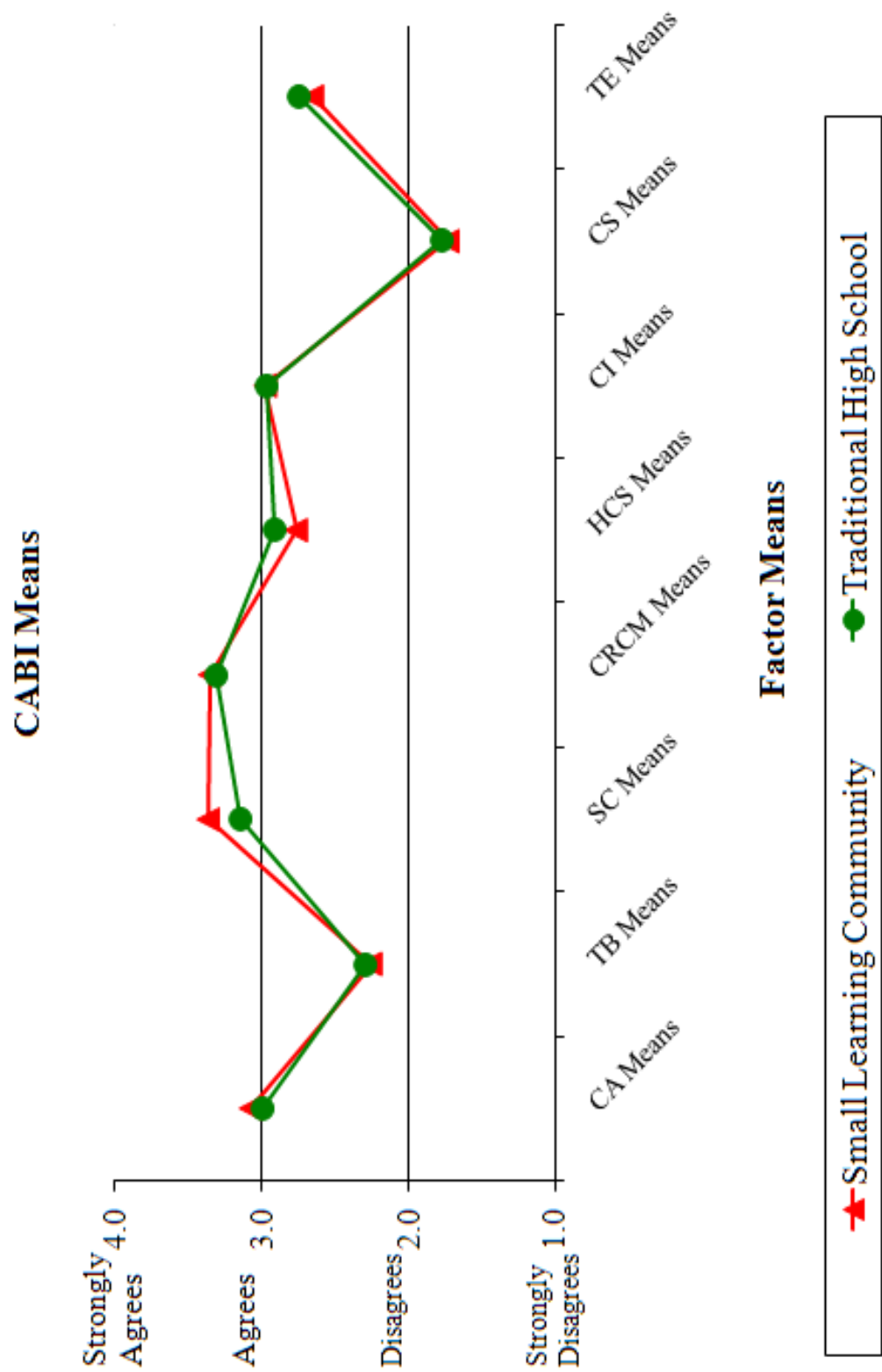


Figure 4.39 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the CABI's Eight Factors by Campus Groups

Research Question #2

What are the differences by campus types of the eight factors of the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory by teachers' ethnicity or teachers' gender?

The literature discussed the influence of a teacher's ethnicity and gender as contributing factors in the formation of their perceptions (CITE). The initial analysis began with the teacher respondents' mean of their CABI survey responses. The CABI means were sorted by teachers' ethnicity, gender and campus group. To incorporate both the campus grouping and the ethnicity or gender of the ninth grade teacher respondents and given the failure of normal distributions, non-parametric tests including the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test were conducted to test for the impact of ethnicity and gender.

Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) for Ninth Grade Teacher Respondents by Ethnicity

When reviewing the CABI means by ethnicity and campus type, the SLC campuses' 53 ninth grade African American teachers' CABI mean was 2.75 (SD = .22) in comparison to THS campuses' 22 ninth grade African American teachers' CABI mean of 2.78 (SD = .27) (see Table 4.29). The European American teachers had a CABI mean of 2.77 (N = 37, SD = .22) at SLC campuses and 2.73 (N = 22, SD = .27) at THS campuses. Teachers identified as Other had a CABI mean of 2.79 (N = 31, SD = .23) at SLC campuses and 2.80 (N = 12, SD = .21) at THS campuses (see Table 4.29). The

differences between the CABI means of ethnic groups were slight and ranged between .01 and .04.

Table 4.29

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents
by Ethnicity and Campus Groups

Ethnicity	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	53	2.75	.22	22	2.78	.27	.03
European American	37	2.77	.19	19	2.73	.12	.04
Other	31	2.79	.23	12	2.80	.21	.01

An examination of the line graph of the CABI mean denoting each campus group and ethnicity found the lines to be nearly identical (see Figure 4.40). The means ranged from 2.73 to 2.80 and appeared nearly parallel in places (see Figure 4.40).

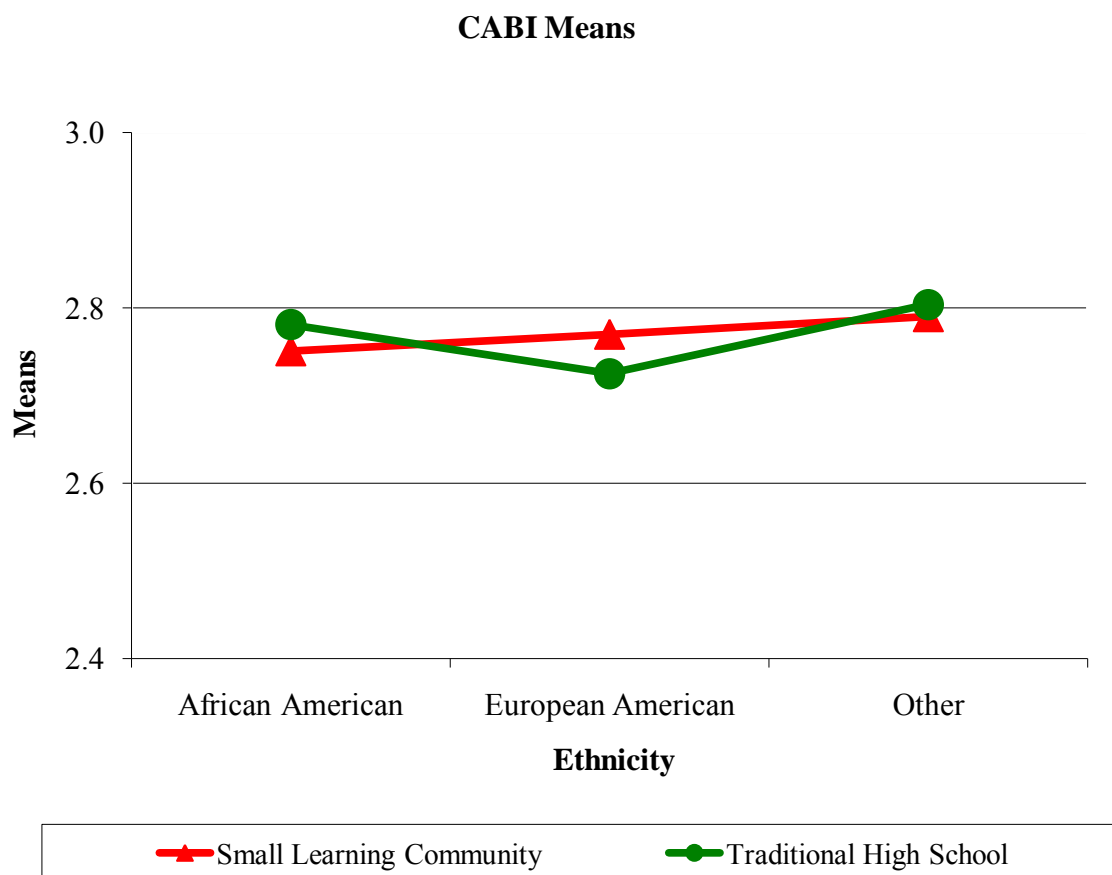


Figure 4.40 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade

Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups

Non-parametric statistics, conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, included the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test, which compared the CABI means of the continuous variables for three or more groups (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of the eight factors as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .48 found the assumption of variance across groups to be upheld at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.30). The significance of the

Kruskal-Wallis H Test at .89 indicated no statistically significant difference existed between the CABI means for teachers' ethnicity at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.30).

Table 4.30

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade

Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups

Ethnicity	N	SLC Medians	N	THS Medians	Difference	Sig.
African American	52	2.72	22	2.76	.04	
European American	37	2.72	19	2.72	.00	
Other	31	2.78	12	2.77	.01	
Kruskal-Wallis H Test						.89
Levene's						.48

Teachers' Perceptions Comparative Means of the

CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups and Ethnicity

In addition to the overall CABI, differences were investigated for each of the eight factors that comprise the instrument. The measures of central tendency, the means

and medians, of these eight factors were compared by ethnicity sorted into campus groups.

Cultural Awareness (CA)

When reviewing the CA means by ethnicity and campus group, the results were diverse. The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' CA mean was 3.12 ($N = 50$, $SD = .37$) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' CA mean of 3.18 ($N = 20$, $SD = .49$) (see Table 4.31). The difference was minor at .06. European American teachers had a CA mean of 3.09 ($N = 36$, $SD = .42$) at SLC campuses and 2.95 ($N = 19$, $SD = .39$) at THS campuses. This comparison resulted in a larger difference of .14. Teachers identified as Other had a CA mean of 2.98 ($N = 30$, $SD = .65$) at SLC campuses and 2.73 ($N = 11$, $SD = .34$) at THS campuses, which calculated the largest difference of .25 (see Table 4.31).

An examination of the line graph plotted the lines for CA each campus group by ethnicity (see Figure 4.41). Although the distances between the means were large in some areas, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.31 with the largest distance between the CA means of Other teachers (see Figure 4.41). With the exception of African American respondents for the THS campus group, the SLC campus group respondents' CA means exceeded the THS campus group respondents' CA means.

Table 4.31

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus
Groups of Cultural Awareness

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	50	3.12	.37	20	3.18	.49	.06
European American	36	3.09	.42	19	2.95	.39	.14
Other	30	2.98	.65	11	2.73	.33	.25

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, included the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test, which compared the means of the continuous variables for three or more groups (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of CA as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .29 found the variance across groups to be equal at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.32). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis H Test at .03 indicated a statistically significant difference existed between the CA means for teachers' ethnicity at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.32).

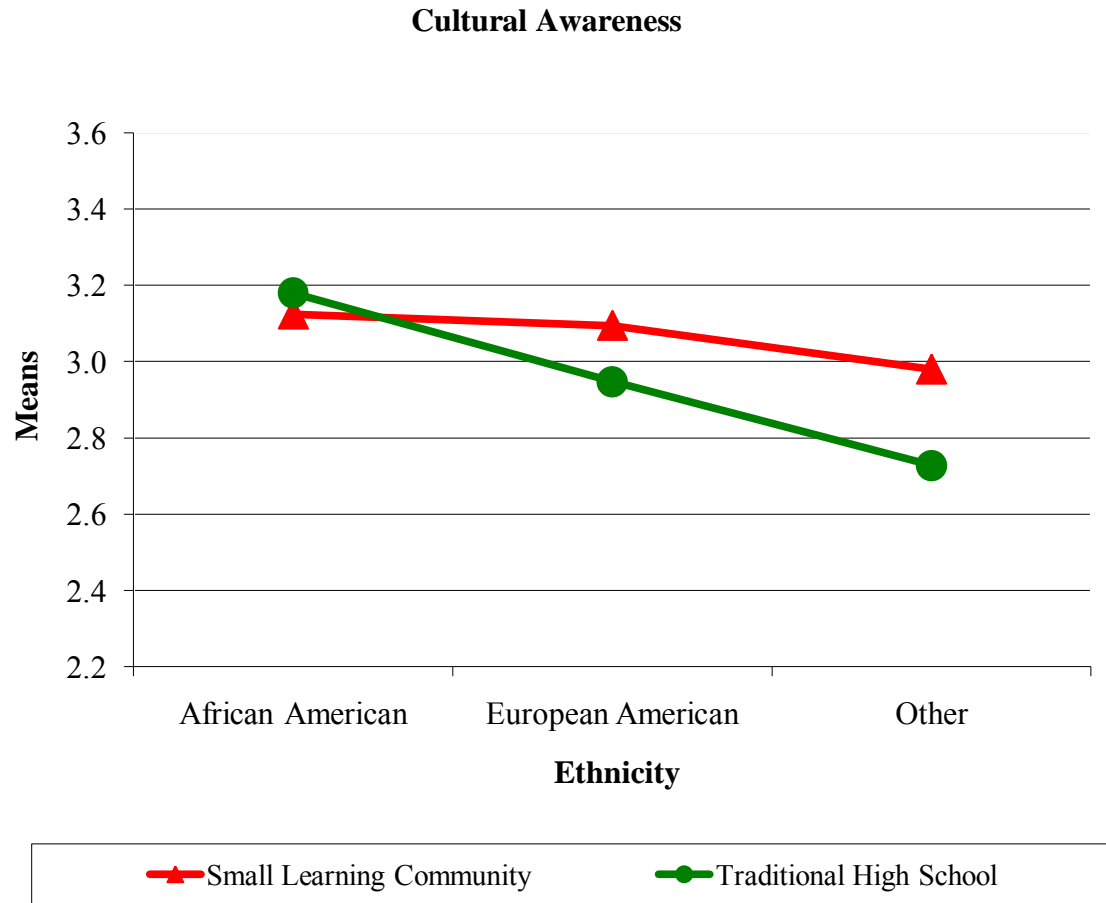


Figure 4.41 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Cultural Awareness

The Mean Rank scores for the data indicated increased levels of cultural awareness perceptions by THS African American teachers at 96.82 and SLC African American teachers at 90.98 (see Table 4.32). Although all groups interactions were tested, the Mann Whitney *U* Test indicated statistically significant differences between three groups, SLC African Americans, SLC European Americans, and THS African Americans with the same group, THS Other. The Mann Whitney *U* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the Cultural Awareness levels of SLC African American ($Md = 3.00$, $N = 49$) and THS Other ($Md = 2.50$, $N = 11$), $U = 112.5$, $z = -3.12$, $p = .00$, $r = .4$ (see Table 4.33). Using Cohen's *d*, the effect size would have a medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of CA (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007). The Mann Whitney *U* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the Cultural Awareness levels of SLC European American ($Md = 3.00$, $N = 36$) and THS Other ($Md = 2.50$, $N = 11$), $U = 96.0$, $z = -2.60$, $p = .01$, $r = .4$ (see Table 4.33). Using Cohen's *d*, the effect size would have a medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of CA (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007). The Mann Whitney *U* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the Cultural Awareness levels of THS African American ($Md = 3.10$, $N = 20$) and THS Other ($Md = 2.50$, $N = 11$), $U = 47.0$, $z = -2.63$, $p = .01$, $r = .5$ (see Table 4.33). Using Cohen's *d*, the effect size would have a medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of CA (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.33

Interactions between Campus Groups' Ethnicity for
Teachers' Perceptions of Cultural Awareness

Campus Groups Interactions		Mann Whitney <i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>
SLC African American	SLC European American	864.0	-.322	.75	
	SLC Other	664.5	-.873	.38	
	THS African American	453..5	-.621	.54	
	THS European American	338.5	-1.88	.06	
	THS Other	112.5	-3.12	.00	.4
SLC European American	SLC Other	503.0	-.49	.63	
	THS African American	317.5	-.74	.46	
	THS European American	264.5	-1.39	.16	
	THS Other	96.0	-2.60	.01	.4
SLC Other	THS African American	246.0	-1.09	.28	
	THS European American	248.0	-.77	.44	
	THS Other	99.5	-1.96	.05	
THS African American	THS European American	129.5	-1.73	.08	
	THS Other	47.0	-2.63	.01	.5
THS European American	THS Other	70.0	-1.51	.13	

Teacher Beliefs (TB)

The descriptive statistics for TB included the investigation of the means, standard deviations, and medians of the teachers' perceptions of teacher beliefs of diverse populations in the classroom and their cultural heritage. The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' TB mean was 2.22 (N = 46, SD = .33) was equivalent to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' TB mean of 2.22 (N = 20, SD = .50) (see Table 4.34). European American teachers had a TB mean of 2.28 (N = 35, SD = .34) at SLC campuses and 2.26 (N = 19, SD = .31) at THS campuses resulting in a slight difference of .02. Teachers identified as Other had a TB mean of 2.31 (N = 28, SD = .57) at SLC campuses and 2.44 (N = 11, SD = .50) at THS campuses calculated the largest difference of .13 (see Table 4.34).

Table 4.34

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus
Groups of Teacher Beliefs

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	46	2.22	.33	20	2.22	.50	.00
European American	35	2.28	.34	19	2.26	.31	.02
Other	28	2.30	.57	11	2.44	.50	.14

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group (see Figure 4.42). Although the distances between the lines were greater in some areas, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found when the values in Table 4.34 were calculated with the largest distance between the TB means of teachers designated as Other (see Figure 4.42). This distance indicated a change in relationship between campus groups. For the African American and European American respondents, the TB means for the SLC campus groups were nearly identical. However, for the Other respondents' TB means, the THS campus group exceeded the SLC campus group.

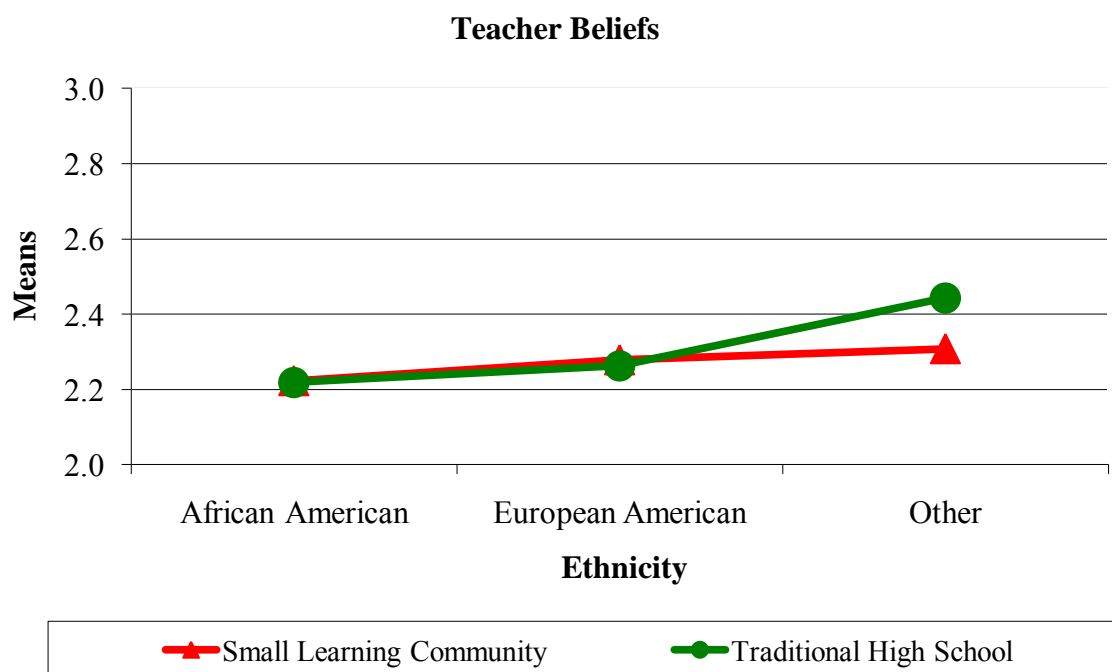


Figure 4.42 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Teacher Beliefs

Non-parametric tests were conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance with the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of TB as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .05 found the variance across groups to be unequal at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.35). This inequality negated any significant results at $p < .05$ and would have to be reexamined at $p < .01$. The reexamination provided significance but it increased the possibility of error variance across the groups. The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test of .65 indicated the lack of a statistically significant difference between the TB means for teachers' ethnicity at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.35).

Table 4.35

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs

Ethnicity	N	SLC Medians	N	THS Medians	Difference	Sig.
African American	46	2.25	20	2.25	.00	
European American	35	2.38	19	2.25	.13	
Other	28	2.25	11	2.25	.00	
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i> Test						.65
Levene's						.05

School Climate (SC)

When compared by ethnicity and campus group, the SC means' differences were diverse. The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' SC mean was 3.42 (N = 51, SD = .57) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' SC mean of 3.23 (N = 22, SD = .48) (see Table 4.36). The difference was .19. European American teachers had a SC mean of 3.28 (N = 37, SD = .45) at SLC campuses and 3.07 (N = 19, SD = .46) at THS campuses resulting in a larger difference at .21. Teachers identified as Other had a SC mean of 3.39 (N = 31, SD .51) at SLC campuses and 3.08 (N = 12, SD = .68) at THS campuses calculated the largest difference of .31 (see Table 4.36).

Table 4.36

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus
Groups of School Climate

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	51	3.42	.57	22	3.23	.48	.19
European American	37	3.28	.45	19	3.07	.46	.21
Other	31	3.33	.51	12	3.08	.68	.31

An examination of the line graph showed the lines for each campus group to be spaced further apart than previous graphs (see Figure 4.43). Although the distances between the means were large in some areas, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.35 with the largest distance between the SC means of Other (see Figure 4.43). The line graph provided a clear delineation of the relationship between the campus groups with the SLC campus group respondents' SC means exceeding the THS campus groups respondents' SC means for every ethnic group.

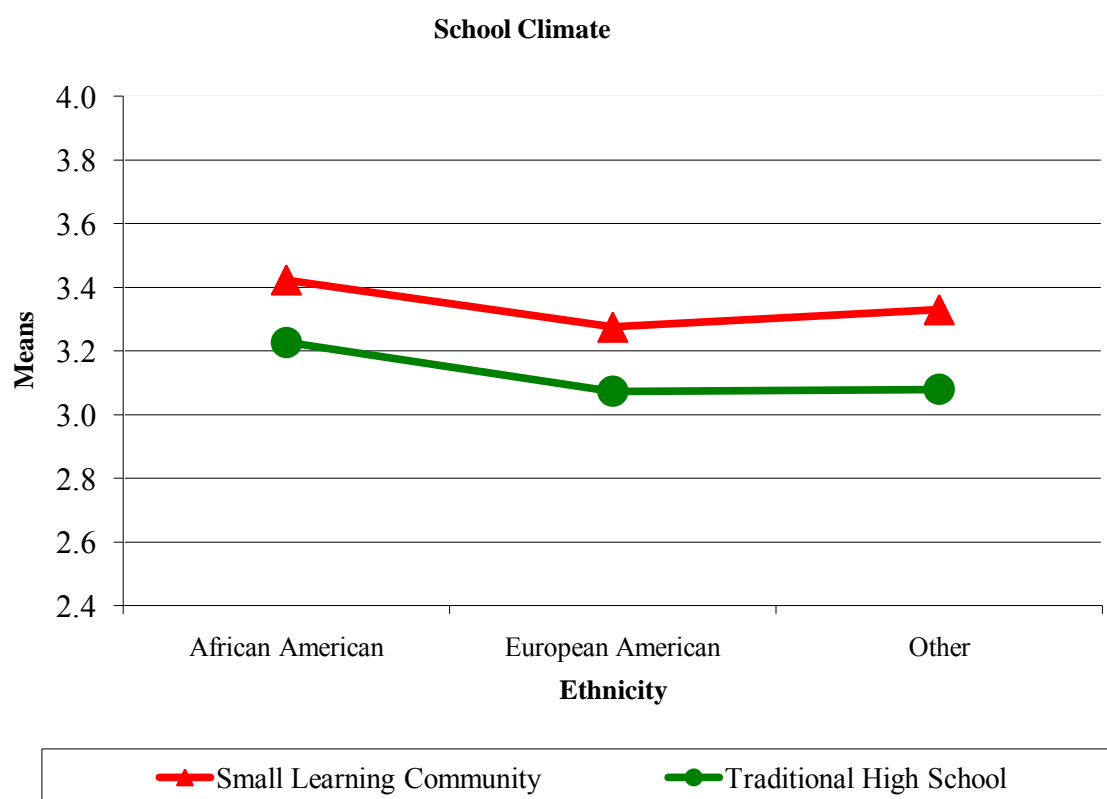


Figure 4.43 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on School Climate

Non-parametric tests were conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance with the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of SC as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .31 found the variance across groups to be equal at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.37). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test at .04 indicated a statistically significant difference between the SC means for teachers' ethnicity at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.36). The Mean Rank scores for the data indicated increased levels of school climate perceptions by THS African American teachers at 101.24 and SLC Other teachers at 95.84 (see Table 4.37).

The Mann Whitney *U* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the School Climate levels of SLC African American ($Md = 3.60$, $N = 51$) and THS European American ($Md = 3.00$, $N = 19$), $U = 280.0$, $z = -2.82$, $p = .01$, $r = .3$ (see Table 4.38). Using Cohen's *d*, the effect size would have a small to medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of SC (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007). The Mann Whitney *U* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the School Climate levels of SLC Other ($Md = 3.40$, $N = 20$) and THS European American ($Md = 3.00$, $N = 19$), $U = 177.0$, $z = -2.38$, $p = .02$, $r = .3$ (see Table 4.38). Using Cohen's *d*, the effect size would have a small to medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of SC (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.37

Non-Parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's

Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of School Climate

Ethnicity	N	SLC Medians	N	THS Medians	Difference	N	SLC Mean Rank	N	THS Mean Rank	Sig.
African American	51	3.60	22	3.20	.40	52	101.24	22	77.84	
European American	37	3.20	19	3.00	.20	37	82.45	19	64.16	
Other	31	3.40	12	3.00	.40	31	95.84	12	69.46	
Kruskal-Wallis H Test										.04
Levene's										.31

Table 4.38

Interactions between Campus Groups' Ethnicity for
Teachers' Perceptions of School Climate

Campus Groups Interactions		Mann Whitney <i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>
SLC African American	SLC European American	749.5	-1.79	.07	
	SLC Other	745.5	-.58	.56	
	THS African American	420.0	-1.82	.07	
	THS European American	280.0	-2.82	.01	.3
	THS Other	210.5	-1.77	.08	
SLC European American	SLC Other	477.0	-1.20	.23	
	THS African American	382.0	-.40	.69	
	THS European American	276.5	-1.32	.19	
	THS Other	181.5	-.95	.34	
SLC Other	THS African American	268.0	-1.33	.18	
	THS European American	177.0	-2.38	.02	.3
	THS Other	138.5	-1.30	.19	
THS African American	THS European American	179.5	-.79	.43	
	THS Other	113.0	-.69	.49	
THS European American	THS Other	112.0	-.08	.94	

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM)

When grouped by ethnicity and campus, the CRCM means' differences were diverse. The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' CRCM mean was 3.38 (N = 51, SD = .62) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers mean of 3.42 (N = 22, SD = .59) (see Table 4.39). The difference was minor at .04. European American teachers had a CRCM mean of 3.36 (N = 36, SD = .54) at SLC campuses and 3.07 (N = 18, SD = .39) at THS campuses resulting in a largest difference at .29. Teachers identified as Other had a CRCM mean of 3.34 (N = 31, SD = .61) at SLC campuses and 3.44 (N = 12, SD = .52) at THS campuses calculated a difference of .10 (see Table 4.39).

Table 4.39

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus
Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	51	3.38	.62	22	3.42	.59	.04
European American	36	3.36	.54	18	3.07	.39	.29
Other	31	3.34	.61	12	3.44	.52	.10

An examination of the line graph plotted the lines for each campus group (see Figure 4.44). Although the distances between the means were large in some areas, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.39 with the largest distance between the CRCM means of Other respondents (see Figure 4.44). The relationship between campus groups by ethnicity was mixed for the CRCM means. While African American and Other respondents of the THS campus group marginally exceeded the SLC campus group respondents of the same ethnicity, the Hispanic American and European American respondents of the SLC campus group had CRCM means demonstrated larger differences than their THS counterparts (see Figure 4.44).

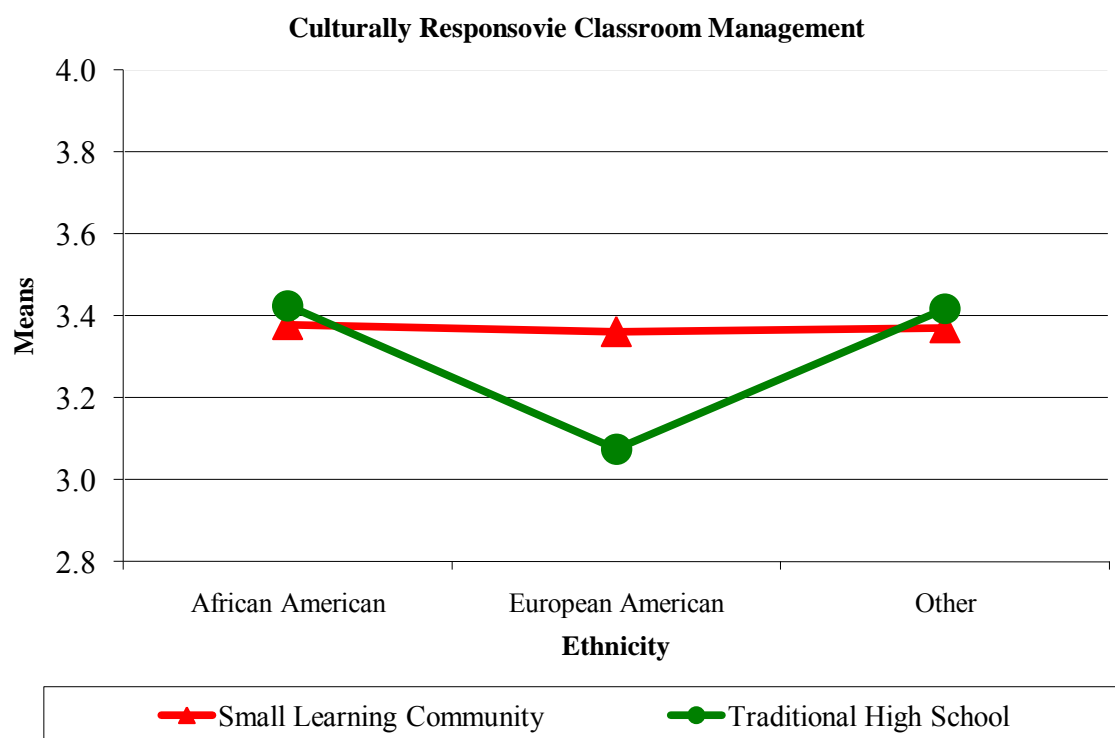


Figure 4.44 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Non-parametric statistics were conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance with the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of CRCM as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .03 found the variance across groups to be unequal at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.40). This inequality negated any significant results at $p < .05$ and would have to be reexamined at $p < .01$. The reexamination provided

Table 4.40

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Ethnicity	N	SLC Medians	N	THS Medians	Difference	Sig.
African American	51	3.33	22	3.33	.00	
European American	36	3.17	18	3.00	.17	
Other	31	3.33	12	3.33	.00	
Kruskal-Wallis H Test						.25
Levene's						.03

significance but it increased the possibility of error variance across the groups. The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis H Test of .25 indicated the lack of a statistically significant difference between the CRCM means for teachers' ethnicity at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.40).

Home and Community Support (HCS)

The HCS means were investigated using descriptive statistics. The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers HCS mean was 2.73 ($N = 50$, $SD = .63$) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers HCS mean of 2.91 ($N = 20$, $SD = .67$) (see Table 4.41). The difference was minor at .18. European American teachers had a HCS mean of 2.70 ($N = 36$, $SD = .58$) at SLC campuses and 2.94 ($N = 18$, $SD = .45$) at THS campuses resulting in a difference at .24. Teachers identified as Other had a HCS mean of 2.90 ($N = 31$, $SD = .57$) at SLC campuses and 2.86 ($N = 11$, $SD = .55$) at THS campuses calculated the largest difference of .04 (see Table 4.41).

An examination of the line graph plotted the lines for each HCS campus group (see Figure 4.45). Although the distances between the means varied, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.41 with the largest distance between the HCS means of Other teachers (see Figure 4.45). The relationship between the two campus groups demonstrated consistency with the THS campus group respondents' HCS means exceeding the SLC campus groups; however, the HCS means

of the Other respondents generated an anomaly as the SLC campus group Other respondents' HCS means were higher than the THS campus groups Other respondents' HCS means.

Table 4.41

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Home and Community Support

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	51	2.73	.63	20	2.91	.67	.18
European American	36	2.70	.58	18	2.94	.45	.24
Other	31	2.90	.57	11	2.86	.55	..04

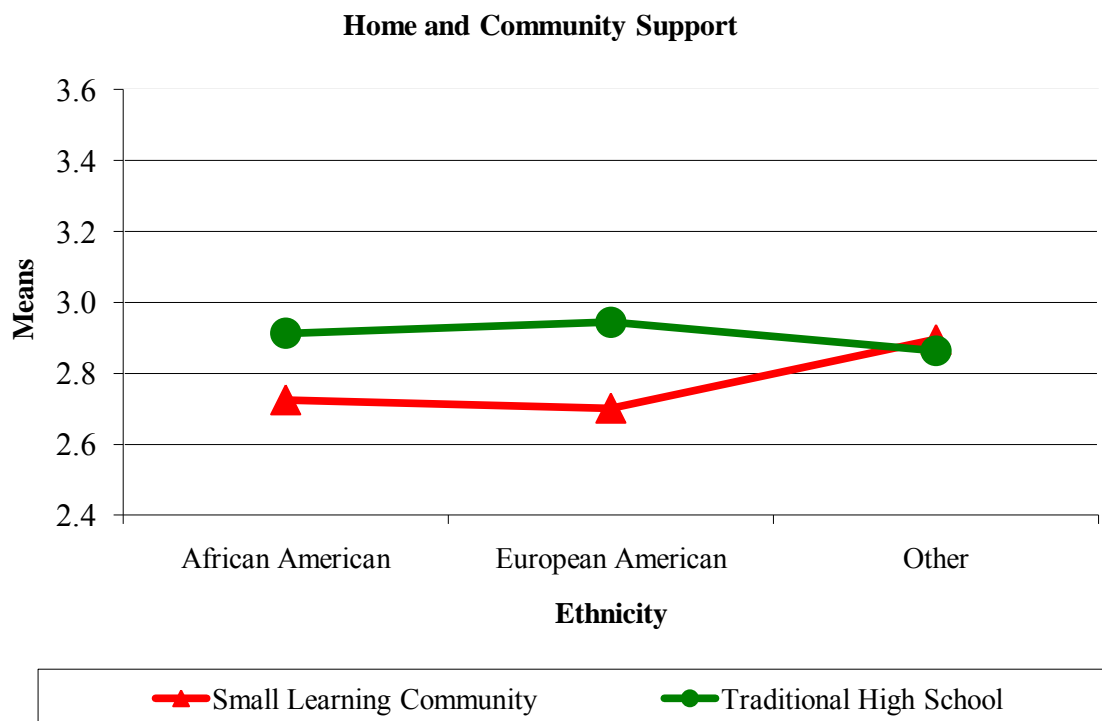


Figure 4.45 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Home and Community Support

Non-parametric statistics were conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance with the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of HCS as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .66 found the variance across groups to be equal at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.42). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis H Test at .66 indicated the lack of a statistically significant difference between the HCS means for teachers' ethnicity at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.42).

Table 4.42

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Home and Community Support

Ethnicity	N	SLC Medians	N	THS Medians	Difference	Sig.
African American	51	2.75	20	2.75	.00	
European American	36	2.75	18	2.75	.00	
Other	31	3.00	22	3.00	.00	
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i> Test						.66
Levene's						.66

Curriculum and Instructional Strategies (CI)

The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' CI mean was 3.00 (N = 50, SD = .43) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' CI mean of 3.06 (N = 21, SD = .45) (see Table 4.43). The difference was minor at .06. European American teachers had a CI mean of 2.97 (N = 36, SD = .42) at SLC campuses and 2.85 (N = 18, SD = .38) at THS campuses resulting in a difference of .12. Teachers identified as Other had a CI mean of 2.98 (N = 27, SD = .48) at SLC

campuses and 2.93 (N = 11, SD = .60) at THS campuses calculated a difference of .05 (see Table 4.43).

Table 4.43

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	51	3.00	.43	21	3.06	.45	.06
European American	36	2.97	.42	18	2.85	.38	.12
Other	27	2.98	.48	11	2.93	.60	.05

An examination of the line graph plotted the lines for CI means on each campus group (see Figure 4.46). Although the distances between the means appeared uniform, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.43 with the largest distance between the CI means of European American teachers (see Figure 4.46). The relationship between the two campus groups demonstrated consistency with the SLC campus group respondents' CI means exceeding the THS campus groups; however, the CI means of the African American respondents generated an anomaly as the THS campus group African American respondents' CI means were slightly higher than the SLC campus groups African American respondents' CI means.

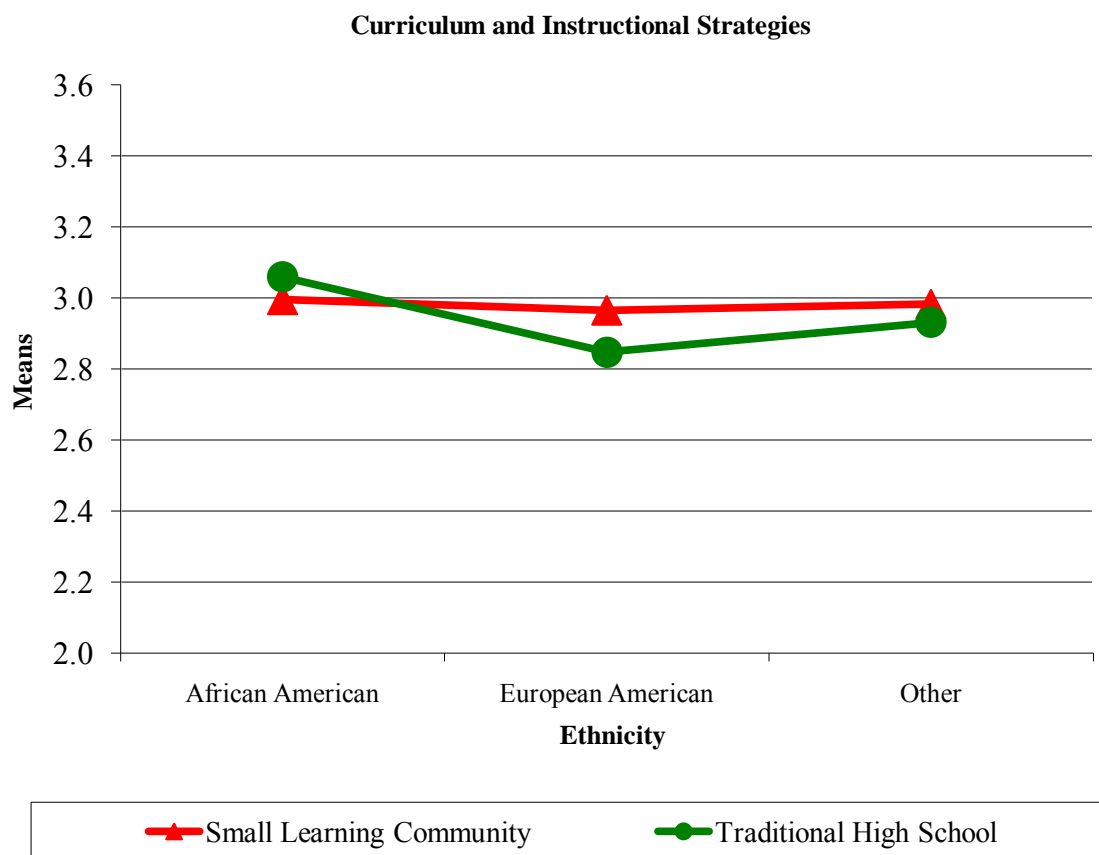


Figure 4.46 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

Non-parametric statistics to validate the assumption of equality of variance with the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test. For the teachers' perceptions of CI as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .41 found the variance across groups to be equal at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.44). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis H Test of .36 indicated the lack of a statistically

significant difference between the CI means for teachers' ethnicity at $p < .05$ (see Table 4.44).

Table 4.44

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

Ethnicity	N	SLC Medians	N	THS Medians	Difference	Sig.
African American	50	3.00	21	3.00	.00	
European American	36	3.00	18	2.75	.25	
Other	27	3.00	11	2.75	.25	
Kruskal-Wallis H Test						.64
Levene's						.63

Cultural Sensitivity (CS)

Examining the differences between the SLC and THS campus groups' means of cultural sensitivity (CS) began with descriptive data. The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers mean was 1.73 ($N = 50$, $SD = .52$) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers mean of 1.60 ($N = 20$, $SD = .51$) (see

Table 4.45). The difference was .13. European American teachers had a CS mean of 1.74 (N = 35, SD = .51) at SLC campuses and 1.84 (N = 19, SD = .44) at THS campuses resulting in a difference of .10. Teachers identified as Other had a CS mean of 1.72 (N = 29, SD = .50) at SLC campuses and 1.94 (N = 12, SD = .68) at THS campuses calculated a difference of .22 (see Table 4.45).

Table 4.45

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	50	1.73	.52	20	1.60	.51	.13
European American	35	1.74	.51	19	1.84	.44	.10
Other	29	1.72	.51	12	1.94	.68	.22

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's CS means (see Figure 4.47). Although the distances between the means were large in some areas, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.45 with the largest distance between the CS means of Other teachers (see Figure 4.47). The relationship between the two campus groups demonstrated consistency with the

THS campus group respondents' CS means exceeding the SLC campus groups; however, the CS means of the African American respondents generated an anomaly as the SLC campus group African American respondents' CS means were slightly higher than the THS campus groups African American respondents' CS means.

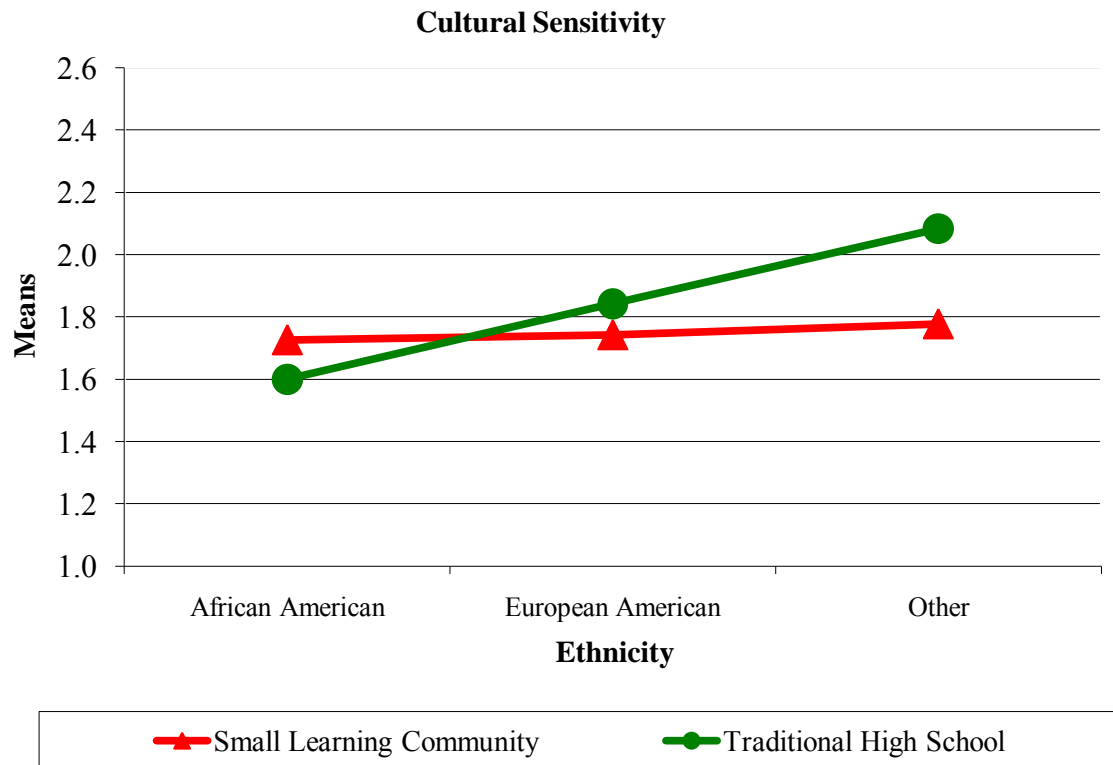


Figure 4.47 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups on Cultural Sensitivity

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, were the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of CS as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .87 found the variance across groups to be upheld (see Table 4.46). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test of .53 indicated the lack of a statistically significant difference between the CS means for teachers' ethnicity (see Table 4.46).

Table 4.46

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Means and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Cultural Sensitivity

Ethnicity	N	SLC Medians	N	THS Medians	Difference	Sig.
African American	50	1.67	20	1.50	.17	
European American	35	1.67	19	2.00	.33	
Other	29	2.00	12	1.83	.17	
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i> Test						.53
Levene's						.87

Teacher Efficacy (TE)

The SLC campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' TE mean was 2.51 (N = 49, SD = .54) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade African American teachers' TE mean of 2.57 (N = 19, SD = .56) (see Table 4.47). The difference was minor at .06. European American teachers had a TE mean of 2.80 (N = 37, SD = .44) at SLC campuses and 2.78 (N = 19, SD = .39) at THS campuses resulting in a difference of .02. Teachers identified as Other had a TE mean of 2.74 (N = 28, SD = .55) at SLC campuses and 2.96 (N = 12, SD = .56) at THS campuses calculated the largest difference of .22 (see Table 4.47).

Table 4.47

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Ethnicity and Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SD	N	THS Mean	SD	Mean Difference
African American	49	2.51	.54	19	2.57	.56	.06
European American	37	2.80	.44	19	2.78	.39	.02
Other	28	2.74	.55	12	2.96	.56	.22

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's TE mean (see Figure 4.48). Although the distances between the means were large in some areas, the actual distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.47 with the largest distance between the means of Other teachers (see Figure 4.48).

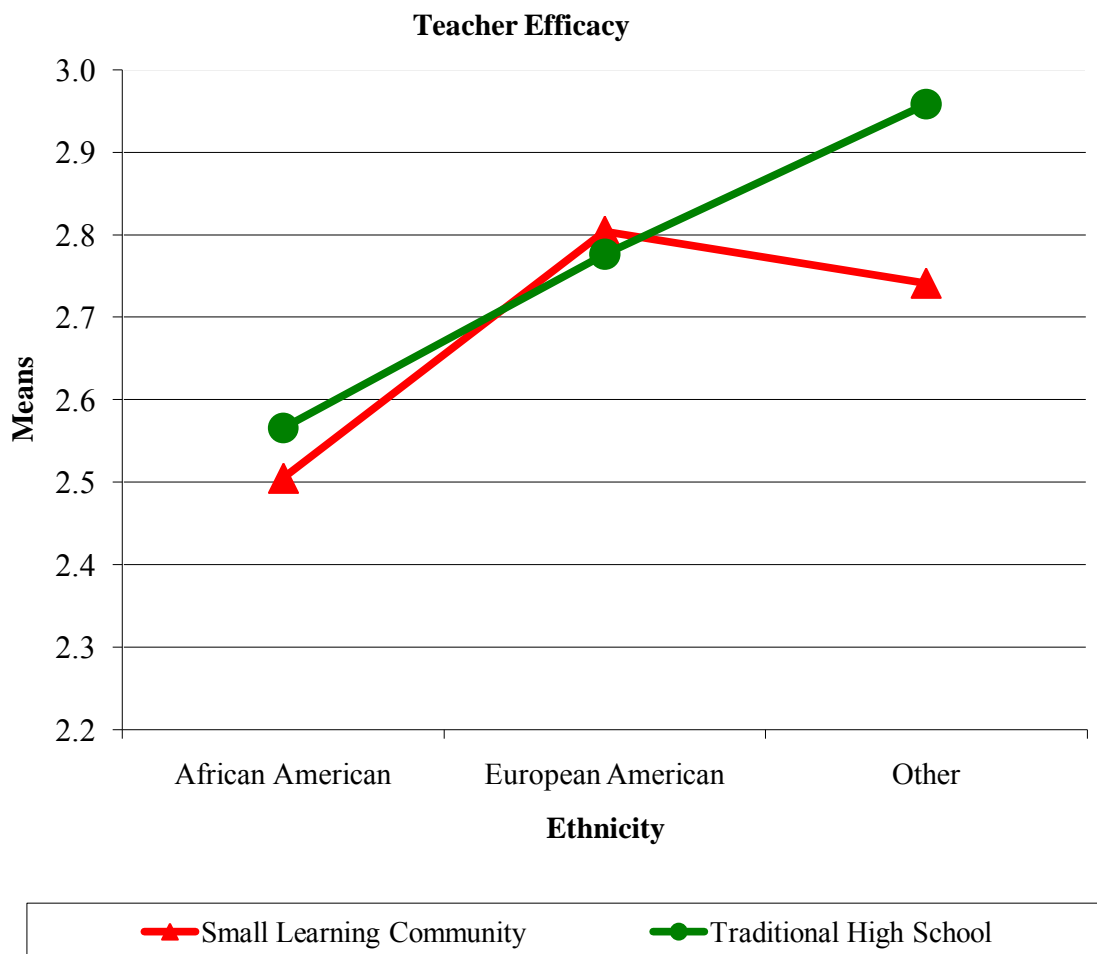


Figure 4.48 Line Graph of Teacher Efficacy Comparative Means of the
CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Campus Groups

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, were the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of TE as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .19 upheld the variance across groups (see Table 4.48). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis H Test of .03 indicated a statistically significant difference existed between the means for teachers' perceptions of TE (see Table 4.48).

The Mean Rank scores for the data indicated increased levels of teacher efficacy perceptions by THS Other teachers at 105.5 and SLC European American teachers at 95.01 (see Table 4.48). Although all groups interactions were tested, the Mann Whitney U Test indicated statistically significant differences between three groups, SLC African Americans and SLC European Americans, SLC African Americans and THS Other, and finally SLC European American and THS African American. The Mann Whitney U test revealed a statistically significant difference in the TE levels of SLC African American ($Md = 2.50$, $N = 49$) and SLC European American ($Md = 2.75$, $N = 37$), $U = 620.0$, $z = -2.54$, $p = .01$, $r = .3$ (see Table 4.49). Using Cohen's d , the effect size would have a medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of TE (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007). The Mann Whitney U test revealed a statistically significant difference in the TE levels of SLC African American ($Md = 2.50$, $N = 49$) and THS Other ($Md = 3.00$, $N = 12$), $U = 169.0$, $z = -2.29$, $p = .02$, $r = .3$ (see Table 4.49). Using Cohen's d , the effect size would have a medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of TE (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007). The Mann Whitney U test revealed a statistically

significant difference in the TE levels of SLC European American ($Md = 2.75$, $N = 37$) and THS African American ($Md = 2.50$, $N = 19$), $U = 228.5$, $z = -2.16$, $p = .03$, $r = .3$ (see Table 4.49). Using Cohen's d , the effect size would have a medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of TE (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007).

The exploration of the impact of ethnicity on the teachers' perception of the eight factors of the CABI yielded the data in Table 4.50. The medians by campus group of each ethnic group found that the highest median to be 3.60 for SC medians of the SLC campus group African American ninth grade teachers. Yet the African American counterparts at the THS campus group ranked CRCM to be their highest scored median at 3.33 along with the THS Other.

The ranking for each ethnicity resulted in a variation of orders. African American teachers' medians ranked from highest to lowest on the SLC campuses as SC, CRCM, CA, CI, HCS, TE, TB, and CS (see Table 4.50). With a minor contrast in the highest rankings, the African American ninth grade teachers' medians on the THS campuses ranked highest to lowest as follows: CRCM, SC, CA, CI, HCS, TE, TB, and CS (see Table 4.50). With slight differences in the order, the median values were lower for the SLC campus group than the THS campus group (see Figure 4.49).

Table 4.49

Interactions between Campus Groups' Ethnicity for
Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Efficacy

Campus Groups Interactions		Mann Whitney <i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>
SLC African American	SLC European American	620.0	-2.54	.01	.3
	SLC Other	559.0	-1.36	.17	
	THS African American	455.5	-.14	.89	
	THS European American	342.0	-1.71	.09	
	THS Other	169.0	-2.29	.02	
SLC European American	SLC Other	458.5	-.80	.42	.3
	THS African American	228.5	-2.16	.03	
	THS European American	317.0	-.61	.54	
	THS Other	181.5	-.96	.34	
SLC Other	THS African American	211.5	-1.20	.23	
	THS European American	238.5	-.60	.55	
	THS Other	127.5	-1.21	.23	
THS African American	THS European American	120.0	-1.80	.07	
	THS Other	67.5	-1.91	.06	
THS European American	THS Other	90.5	-.97	.33	

Table 4.50
Medians by Ethnicity for Ninth Grade Teachers by Campus Group,
Teachers' Perceptions of the Eight Factors as Measured by the CABI

	Small Learning Community Campuses						Traditional High School Campuses					
	N	African American	N	European American	N	Other	N	African American	N	European American	N	Other
CABI	52	2.72	37	2.72	31	2.80	22	2.76	19	2.72	12	2.77
CA	49	3.00	36	3.00	30	3.00	20	3.10	19	3.00	11	2.50
TB	46	2.25	35	2.38	28	2.25	20	2.25	19	2.25	11	2.25
SC	51	3.60	37	3.20	31	3.40	22	3.20	19	3.00	12	3.00
CRCM	51	3.33	36	3.17	31	3.33	22	3.33	18	3.00	12	3.33
HCS	51	2.75	36	2.75	31	3.00	20	2.75	18	2.75	22	3.00
CI	50	3.00	36	3.00	27	3.00	21	3.00	18	2.75	11	2.75
CS	50	1.67	35	1.67	29	2.00	20	1.50	19	2.00	12	1.83
TE	49	2.50	37	2.75	28	2.63	19	2.50	19	2.75	12	3.00

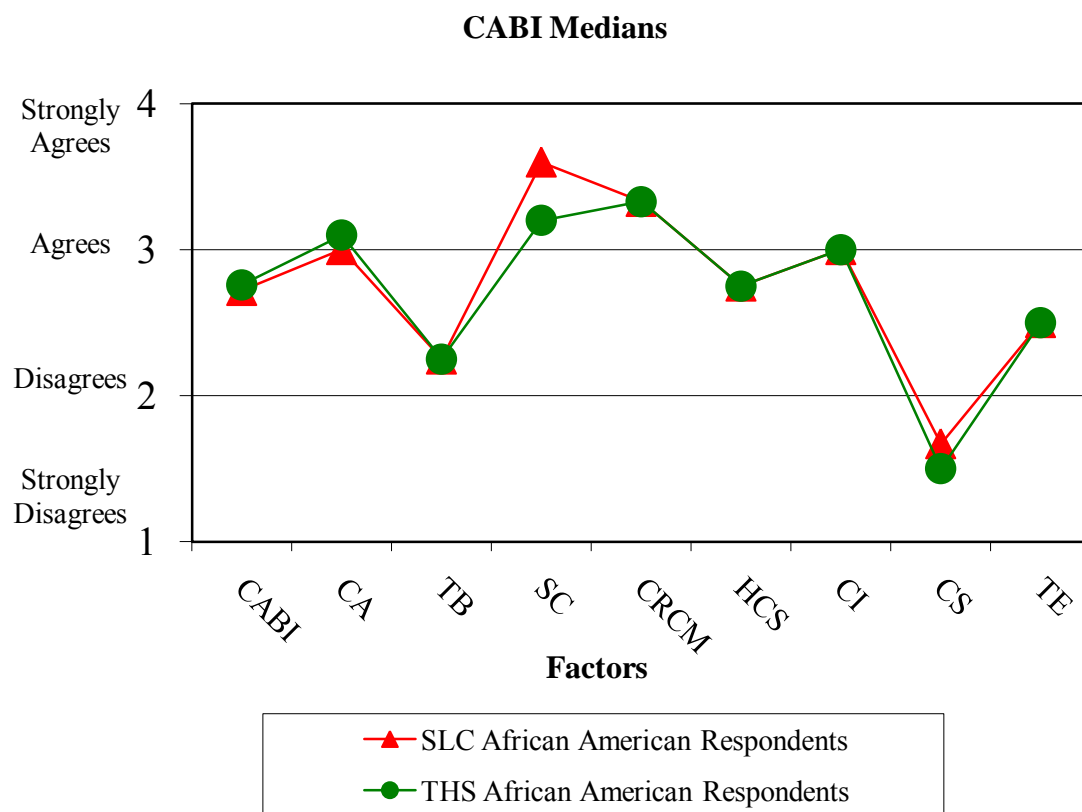


Figure 4.49 Line Graph of Comparative Medians of African American Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group

For the SLC campus group, the European American ninth grade teachers' medians ranked highest to lowest reported as: SC, CRCM, CA, CI, TE, HCS, TB, and CS (see Table 4.50). For the THS campus group, the European American ninth grade teachers' medians compared as follows: a tie between CRCM, SC and CA, a tie for HCS, CI and TE, TB, and CS (see Table 4.50). With slight differences in the order, the

median values were lower for the THS campus group than the SLC campus group (see Figure 4.50).

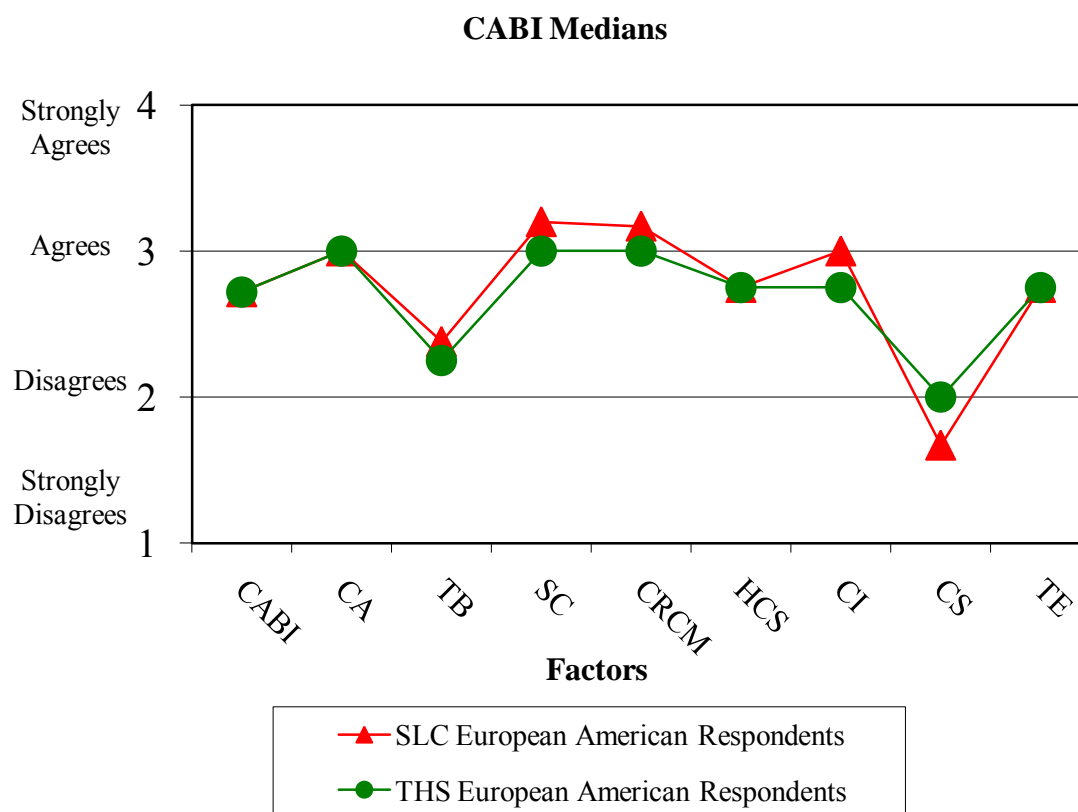


Figure 4.50 Line Graph of Comparative Medians of European American Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group

For the SLC campus group, the Other ninth grade teachers' medians ranked highest to lowest reported as: SC, CRCM, a tie for CI, CA and HCS, TE, TB, and CS

(see Table 4.51). For the THS campus group, the Other ninth grade teachers' medians compared as follows: CRCM, a tie for TE, SC and HCS, CI, CA, TB, and CS (see Table 4.51). The greatest diversity in the ranking was scored by the Other teachers at the THS campuses reporting that Teacher Efficacy rated higher in their perceptions than in the other campus group's and the other ethnicities (see Figure 4.51).

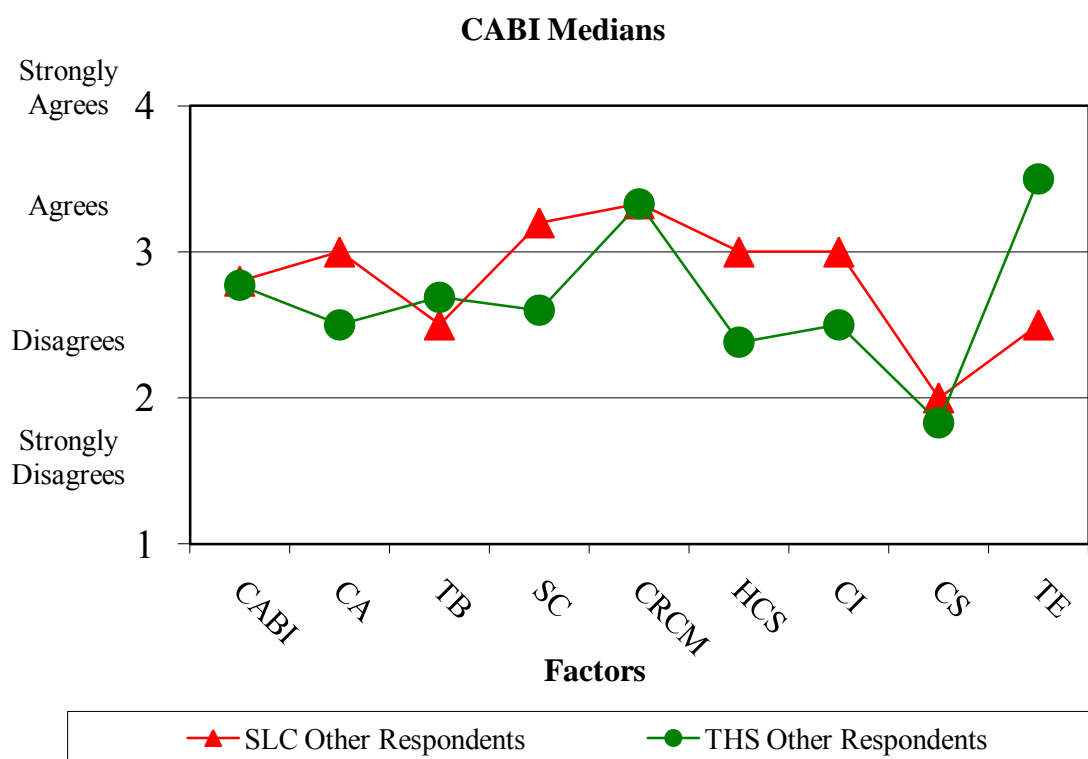


Figure 4.51 Line Graph of Comparative Medians of Other Teachers' Perceptions by Campus Group

Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI)
for Ninth Grade Teacher Respondents by Gender

The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CABI mean was 2.77 (N = 83, SD = .22) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CABI mean of 2.76 (N = 36, SD = .22) (see Table 4.51). The difference was small at .01. Male teachers had a CABI mean of 2.75 (N = 38, SD = .18) at SLC campuses and 2.78 (N = 17, SD = .19) at THS campuses resulting in a difference of .03 (see Table 4.51).

Table 4.51

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus
Groups

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	83	2.77	.22	36	2.76	.22	.01
Male	38	2.75	.18	17	2.78	.19	.03

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's CABI mean (see Figure 4.52). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.51. The distance between the male respondents' CABI means was larger than the distance between the female respondents' CABI means (see Figure 4.52).

The relationship among the respondents by campus groups changed. For the SLC campus group, the female respondents' CABI means were larger than the male respondents' CABI means. For the THS campus group, the male respondents' CABI means were larger than the female respondents' CABI means.

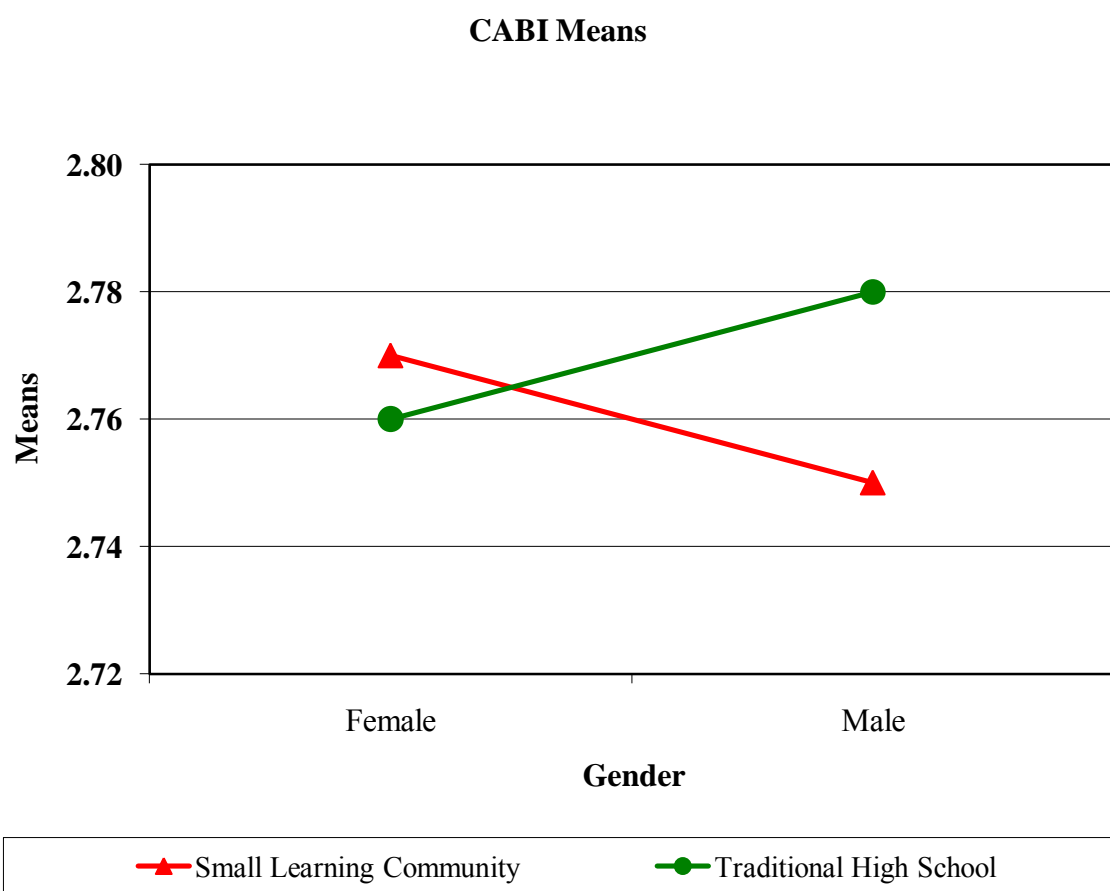


Figure 4.52 Line Graph of Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, were the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of CABI as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .65 upheld the assumption of variance across groups (see Table 4.52). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test at .98 indicated a failure to find a statistically significant difference between the CABI means based on teachers' gender (see Table 4.52).

Table 4.52

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

	N	SLC Median	SLC Mean Rank	N	THS Median	THS Mean Rank	Sig.
Female	83	2.75	88.86	36	2.76	84.31	
Male	38	2.74	87.08	17	2.76	88.56	
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i> Test							.98
Levene's							.65

Cultural Awareness (CA)

The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CA mean was 3.12 (N = 78, SD = .43) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CA mean of 2.99 (N = 34, SD = .47) (see Table 4.53). The difference was small at .13. Male teachers had CA means of 3.00 (N = 38, SD = .55) at SLC campuses and 2.99 (N = 16, SD = .43) at THS campuses resulting in a difference of .01 (see Table 4.53).

Table 4.53

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus
Groups of Cultural Awareness

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	78	3.12	.43	34	2.99	.47	.13
Male	38	3.00	.55	16	2.99	.43	.01

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's CA mean (see Figure 4.53). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.53. The distance between the male respondents' CA means was smaller than the distance between the female respondents' CA means (see Figure 4.53). For campus groups, the relationship between the respondents differed as well. For the SLC campus

group, there was a larger distance between the CA means by gender when compared to the CA means by gender for the THS campus group.

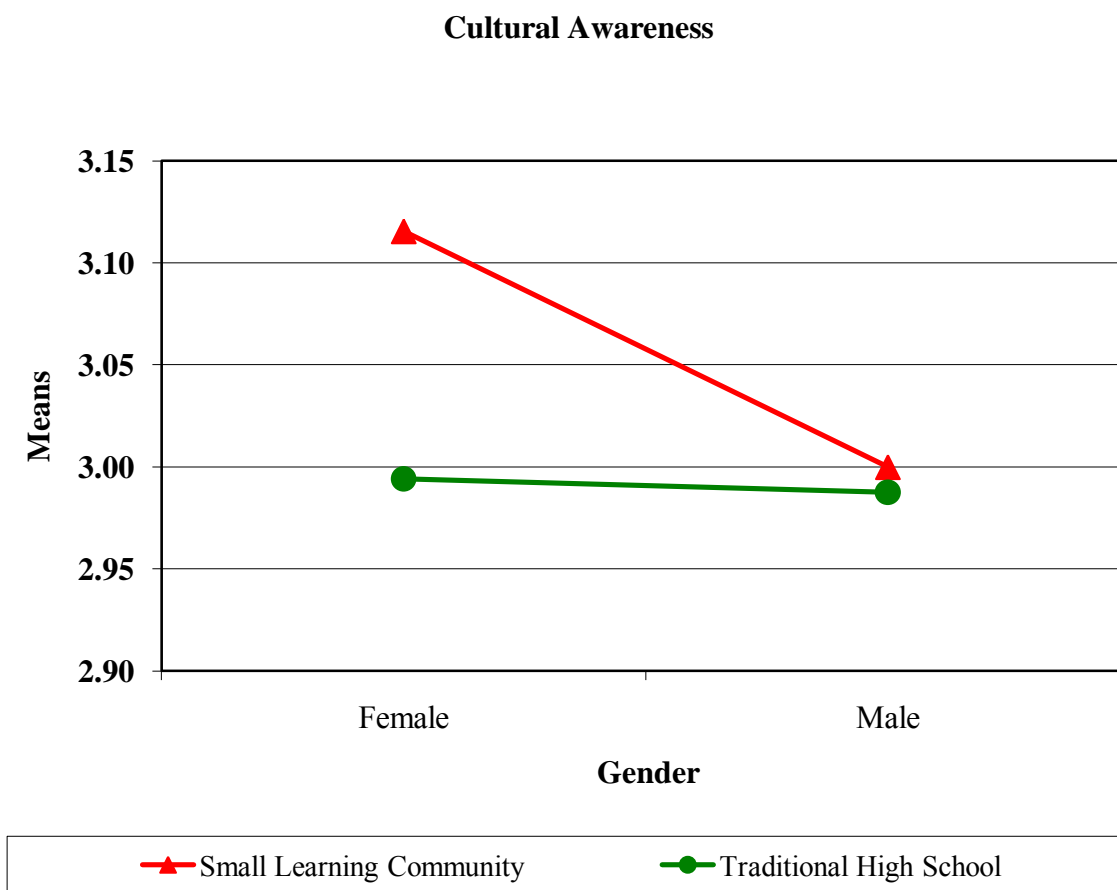


Figure 4.53 Line Graph of Cultural Awareness Comparative Means of the CABI's
Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, were the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of CA as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .62 upheld the assumption of variance across groups (see Table 4.54). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test of .30 indicated a failure to find a statistically significant difference between the CA means based on teachers' gender (see Table 4.54).

Table 4.54

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Cultural Awareness

	N	SLC Median	SLC Mean Rank	N	THS Median	THS Mean Rank	Sig.
Female	78	3.00	90.62	34	3.00	74.21	
Male	38	3.00	80.42	16	3.00	75.88	
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i> Test							.30
Levene's							.62

Teacher Beliefs (TB)

The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' TB mean was 2.59 (N = 72, SD = .37) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' TB mean of 2.27 (N = 33, SD = .49) (see Table 4.55). The difference between the female respondents at .32 was larger than the difference between the male respondents. Male teachers had a TB mean of 2.22 (N = 38, SD = .45) at SLC campuses and 2.31 (N = 17, SD = .31) at THS campuses resulting in a difference of .04 (see Table 4.55).

Table 4.55

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus
Groups of Teacher Beliefs

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	73	2.59	.37	33	2.27	.49	.32
Male	38	2.22	.45	17	2.31	.31	.09

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's TB mean (see Figure 4.54). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.55. The distance between the male respondents' TB means was larger than the distance between the female respondents' TB means (see Figure 4.54). The

relationship between the genders changed as the SLC campus groups' male respondents' TB means were lower than female respondents' TB means. For the THS campus group, the male respondents' TB means were higher than the female respondents' TB means.

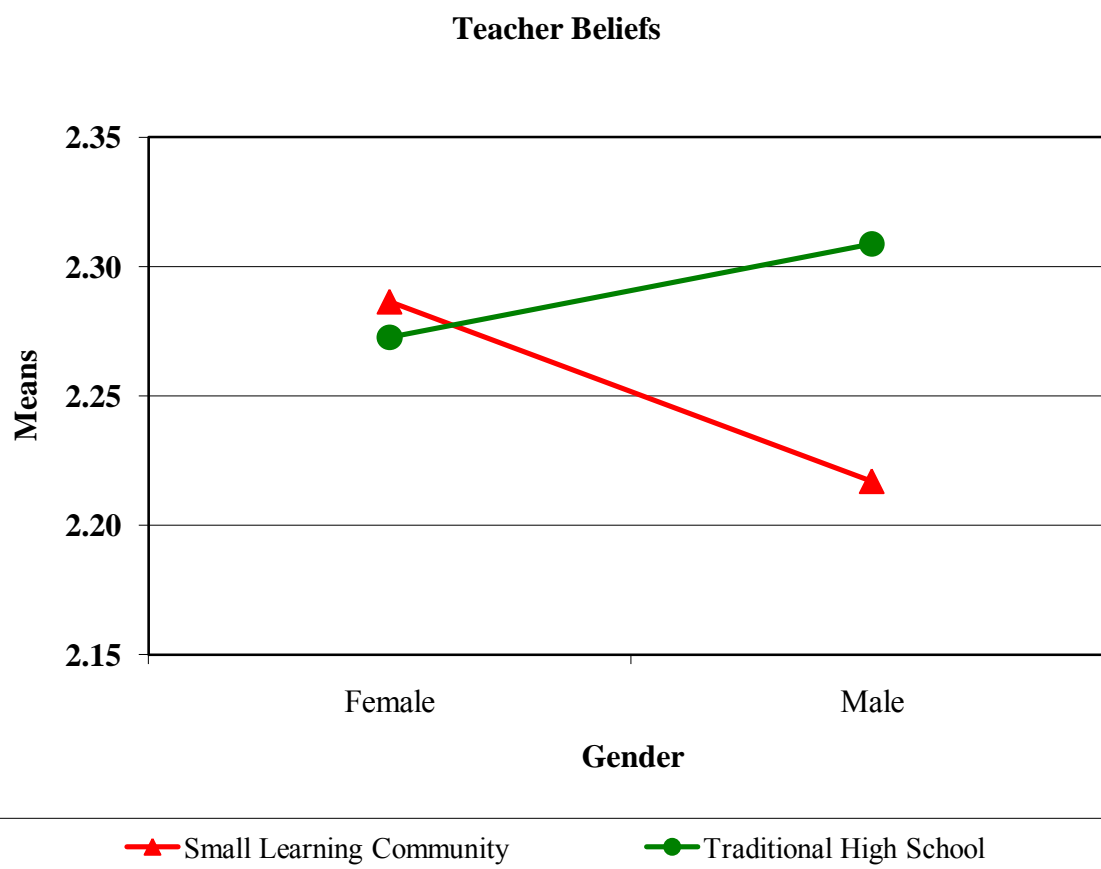


Figure 4.54 Line Graph of Teacher Beliefs Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, were the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of TB as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .39 upheld the assumption of equality of variance across groups (see Table 4.56). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* Test at .73 indicated a failure to find a statistically significant difference between the CABI means based on teachers' gender (see Table 4.56).

Table 4.56

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Teacher Beliefs

	N	SLC Median	SLC Mean Rank	N	THS Median	THS Mean Rank	Sig.
Female	72	2.25	83.53	33	2.25	74.79	
Male	38	2.25	77.14	17	2.25	86.24	
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i> Test							.30
Levene's							.62

School Climate (SC)

The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' SC mean was 3.34 ($N = 83$, $SD = .55$) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' SC mean of 3.16 ($N = 36$, $SD = .49$) (see Table 4.57). Male teachers had a SC mean of 3.42 ($N = 37$, $SD = .44$) at SLC campuses and 3.12 ($N = 17$, $SD = .59$) at THS campuses. The difference between the male respondents of .30 exceeded the difference of the female respondents of .18 (see Table 4.57).

Table 4.57

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus
Groups of School Climate

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	83	3.34	.55	36	3.16	.49	.18
Male	37	3.42	.44	17	3.12	.59	.30

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's gender TB mean (see Figure 4.55). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.57. The distance between the male respondents' SC means was slightly larger than the distance between the female respondents' SC means (see

Figure 4.55). The relationship between the campus groups changed. For SLC campus groups, the male respondents' SC means were larger than the female respondents' SC means. However, on the THS campuses, the opposite was true. The female respondents' SC means were larger than the male respondents' SC means.

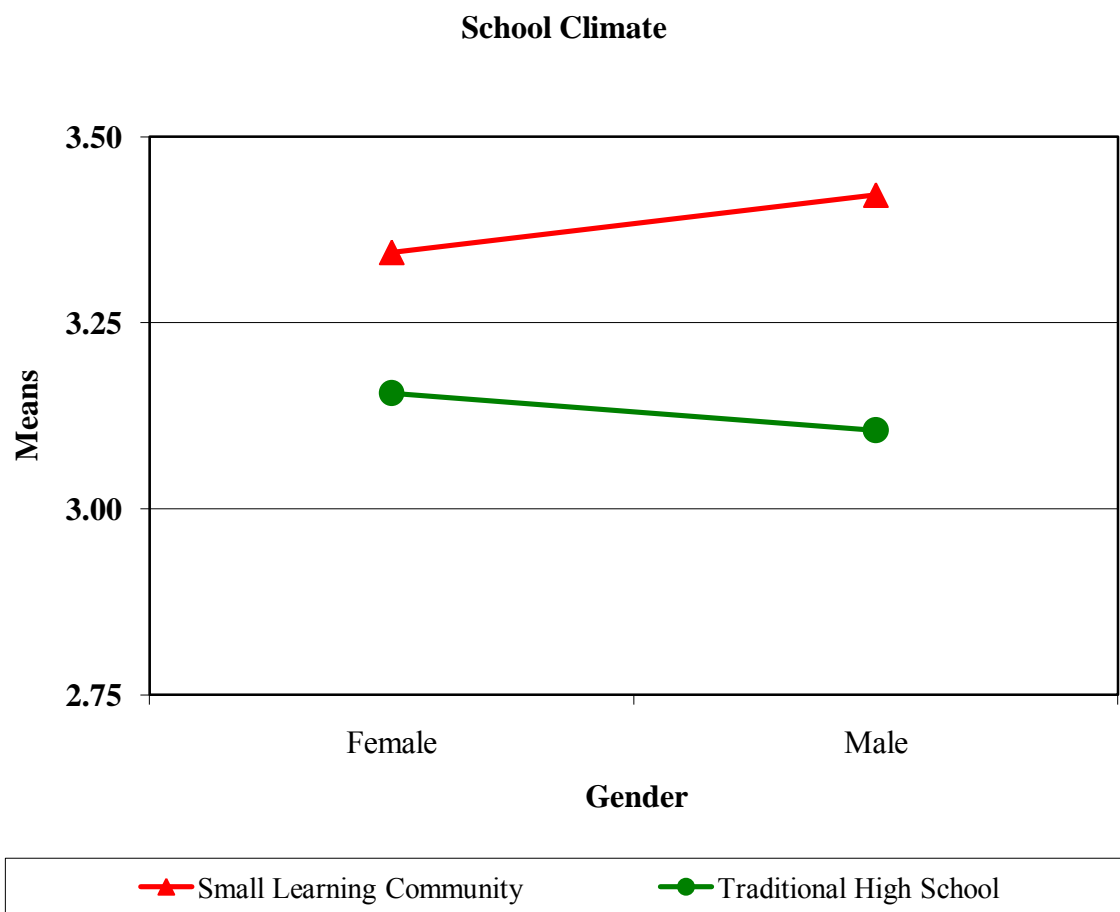


Figure 4.55 Line Graph of School Climate Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of School Climate

Gender	N	SLC Median	SLC Mean Rank	N	THS Median	THS Mean Rank	Sig.
Female	83	3.40	92.4	36	3.10	71.7	
Male	37	3.40	97.9	17	3.00	69.7	
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i> Test							.04
Levene's							.68

The Mean Rank scores for the data indicated increased levels of school climate perceptions by SLC Male teachers at 97.9 and SLC Female teachers at 92.4 (see Table 4.58). Although all groups interactions were tested, the Mann Whitney *U* Test indicated statistically significant differences between the following groups, SLC Female teachers with THS Female teachers, and SLC Male teachers with THS Female teachers. The Mann Whitney *U* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the SC levels of SLC Female teachers ($Md = 3.40$, $N = 83$) and THS Female teachers ($Md = 3.10$, $N = 36$), $U = 1142.5$, $z = -2.06$, $p = .04$, $r = .2$ (see Table 4.59). Using Cohen's *d*, the effect size would have a small to medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of SC (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007). The Mann Whitney *U* test revealed a statistically significant difference in the SC levels of SLC Male teachers ($Md = 3.40$, $N = 37$) and THS Female teachers ($Md = 3.10$, $N = 36$), $U = 455.0$, $z = -2.36$, $p = .02$, $r = .3$ (see Table 4.59). Using Cohen's *d*, the effect size would have a medium effect on these teachers' perceptions of SC (Valentine & Cooper, 2003; Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.59

Interactions between Campus Groups' Gender for
Teachers' Perceptions of School Climate

Campus Groups Interactions		Mann Whitney <i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>
SLC Female	SLC Male	1148.0	-.50	.62	
	THS Female	1142.5	-2.06	.04	.2
	THS Male	525.0	-1.68	.09	
SLC Male	THS Female	455.0	-2.36	.02	.3
	THS Male	211.5	-1.94	.05	
THS Female	THS Male	295.5	-.20	.84	

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM)

The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CRCM mean was 3.30 (N = 81, SD = .59) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CRCM mean of 3.34 (N = 36, SD = .53) (see Table 4.60). The difference was small at .04. Male teachers had a CRCM mean of 3.50 (N = 38, SD = .55) at SLC campuses and a CRCM mean of 3.23 (N = 16, SD = .55) at THS campuses resulting in a larger difference of .27 (see Table 4.60).

Table 4.60

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus
Groups of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	81	3.30	.59	36	3.34	.53	.04
Male	38	3.50	.55	16	3.23	.55	.27

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's CRCM mean based on gender of the respondents (see Figure 4.56). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.60. The distance between the male respondents' CRCM means was larger than the distance between the female respondents' CRCM means (see Figure 4.56). The relationship between the campus groups changed. For SLC campus groups, the male respondents' CRCM means were larger than the female respondents' CRCM means. However, on the THS campuses, the opposite was true. The female respondents' CRCM means were larger than the male respondents' CRCM means.

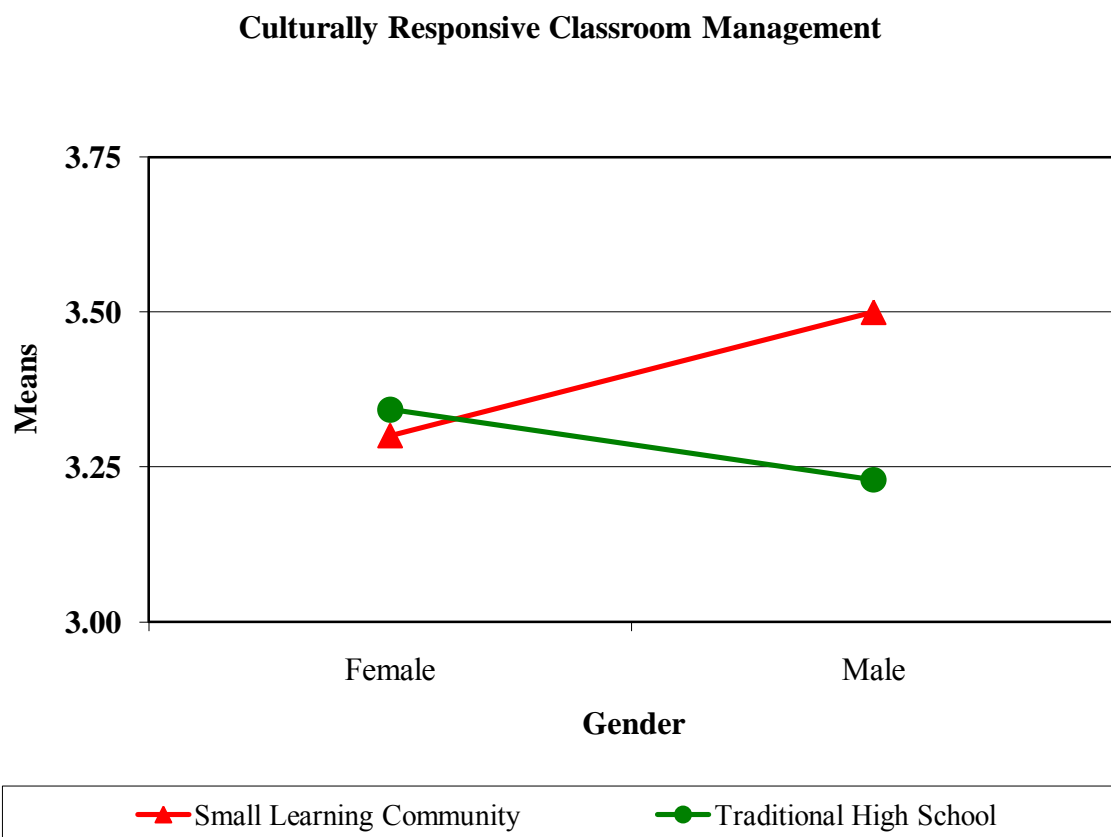


Figure 4.56 Line Graph of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, were the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test (Pallant, 2007). For the teachers' perceptions of CRCM as measured by the CABI, the Levene's significance of .64 upheld the assumption of variance across groups (see Table 4.61). The significance of the Kruskal-Wallis H Test at .27 indicated a failure to find a statistically significant difference between the CRCM means based on teachers' gender (see Table 4.61).

Table 4.61

Non-parametric Tests of Comparative Mean Ranks and Medians of the CABI's Ninth
Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of
Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

	N	SLC Median	SLC Mean Rank	N	THS Median	THS Mean Rank	Sig.
Female	81	3.00	82.64	36	3.33	86.40	
Male	38	3.83	97.84	16	3.00	74.00	
Kruskal-Wallis H Test							.27
Levene's							.64

Home and Community Support (HCS)

When reviewing the HCS means by gender and campus group, the differences were results differed from previous campus groups findings where for the first time the THS respondents' means exceeded the SLC respondents' means for both sexes. The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' HCS mean was 2.75 (N = 81, SD = .61) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' HCS mean of 2.95 (N = 32, SD = .54) (see Table 4.62). Male teachers had a HCS mean of 2.80 (N = 37, SD = .59) at SLC campuses and 2.84 (N = 17, SD = .61) at THS campuses. The difference

between the female respondents of .20 exceeded the difference of the male respondents of .04 (see Table 4.62).

Table 4.62

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups of Home and Community Support

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	81	2.75	.61	32	2.95	.54	.20
Male	37	2.80	.59	17	2.84	.61	.04

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's gender HCS mean (see Figure 4.57). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.62. The distance between the female respondents' HCS means was larger than the distance between the male respondents' HCS means (see Figure 4.57). The relationship between the campus groups changed. For SLC campus groups, the male respondents' HCS means were larger than the female respondents' HCS means. However, on the THS campuses, the opposite was true. The female respondents' HCS means were larger than the male respondents' HCS means. Finally,

the relationship between the campus groups changed as the THS respondents' HCS means of both sexes exceeded the SLC respondents' HCS means (see Figure 4.57).

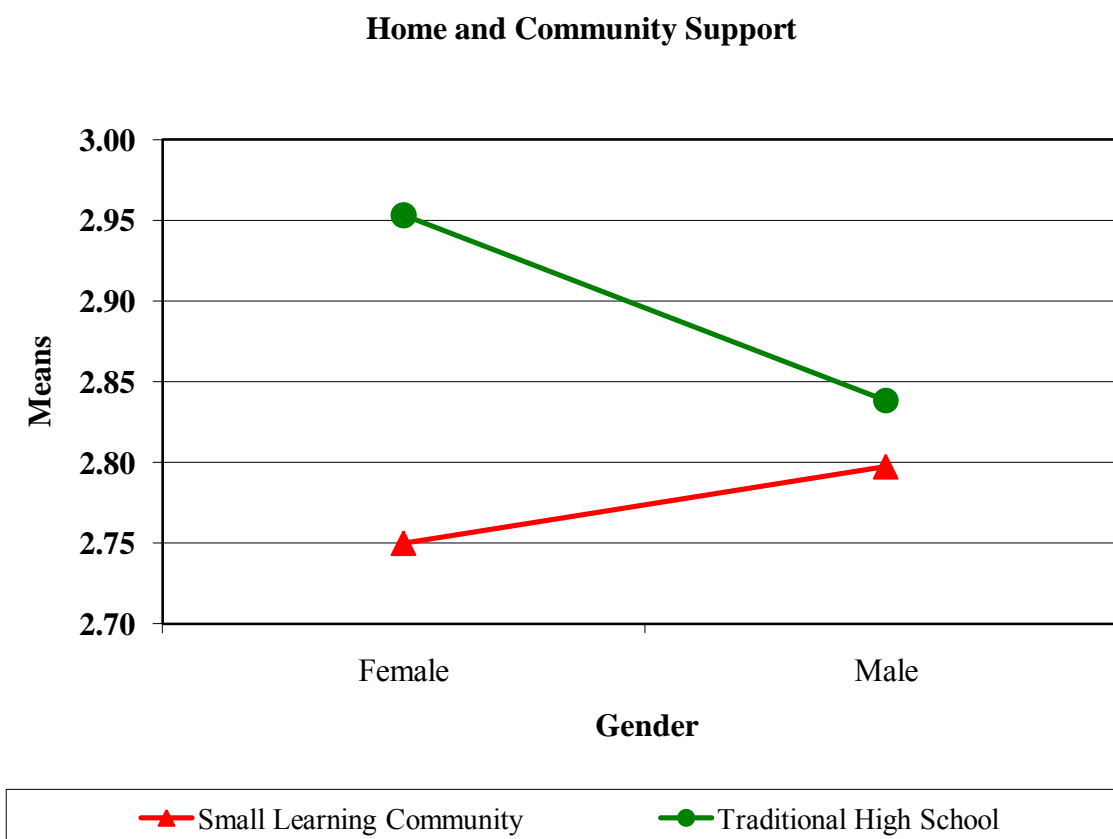


Figure 4.57 Line Graph of Home and Community Support Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Non-parametric statistics, the final tests conducted to validate the assumption of equality of variance, were the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and the

Curriculum and Instructional Strategies (CI)

The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CI mean was 2.95 (N = 77, SD = .44) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CI mean of 2.93 (N = 34, SD = .52) (see Table 4.64). Male teachers had a CI mean of 3.05 (N = 37, SD = .41) at SLC campuses and 3.00 (N = 16, SD = .33) at THS campuses. The difference between the male respondents of .05 marginally exceeded the difference of the female respondents of .02 (see Table 4.64).

Table 4.64

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus
Groups of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	77	2.95	.44	34	2.93	.52	.02
Male	37	3.05	.41	16	3.00	.33	.05

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's gender CI mean (see Figure 4.58). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.64. The distance between the male respondents' CI means was slightly larger than the distance between the female respondents' CI means (see

Figure 4.58). The relationship between the campus groups changed. For SLC campus groups, the male respondents' CI means were larger than the female respondents' CI means. On the THS campuses, this relationship held true. The male respondents' CI means were larger than the female respondents' CI means.

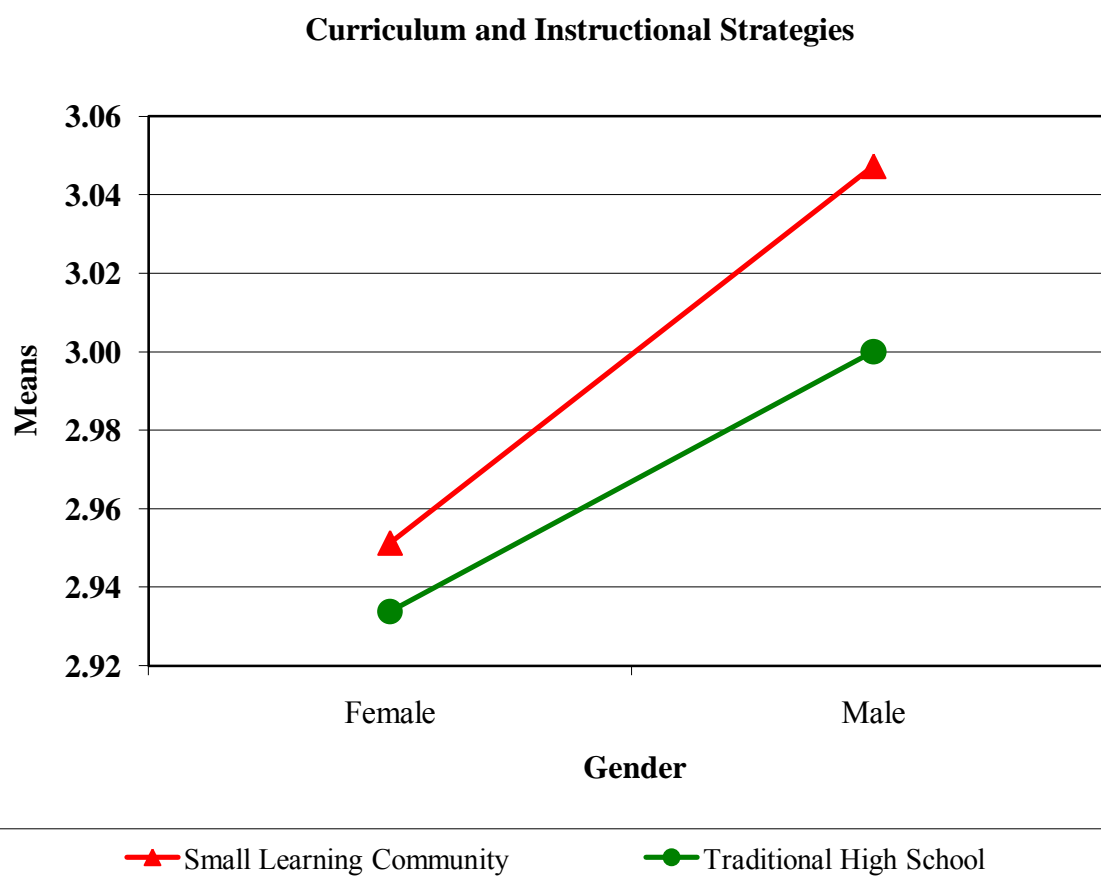


Figure 4.58 Line Graph of Curriculum and Instructional Strategies Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Cultural Sensitivity (CS)

When reviewing the CS means by gender and campus group, the differences mirrored most of the previous factor differences. The SLC campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CS mean was 1.76 (N = 77, SD = .50) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female teachers' CS mean of 1.69 (N = 34, SD = .50) (see Table 4.66). Male teachers had a CS mean of 1.68 (N = 37, SD = .52) at SLC campuses and 1.94 (N = 17, SD = .59) at THS campuses. The difference between the male respondents of .26 exceeded the difference of the female respondents of .07 (see Table 4.66). The means for CS were smaller than the other seven factors; however, it was noteworthy that CS was the only factor that contained all reverse scored items (Roberts-Walter, 2007).

Table 4.66

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus
Groups of Cultural Sensitivity

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	77	1.76	.50	34	1.69	.50	.07
Male	37	1.68	.52	17	1.94	.59	.26

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's gender CS mean (see Figure 4.59). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.66. The distance between the male respondents' CS means was larger than the distance between the female respondents' CS means (see Figure 4.59). The relationship between the campus groups changed. For SLC campus groups, the female respondents' CS means were larger than the male respondents' CS means. However, on the THS campuses, the opposite was true. The male respondents' CS means were larger than the female respondents' CS means and by a larger difference as well.

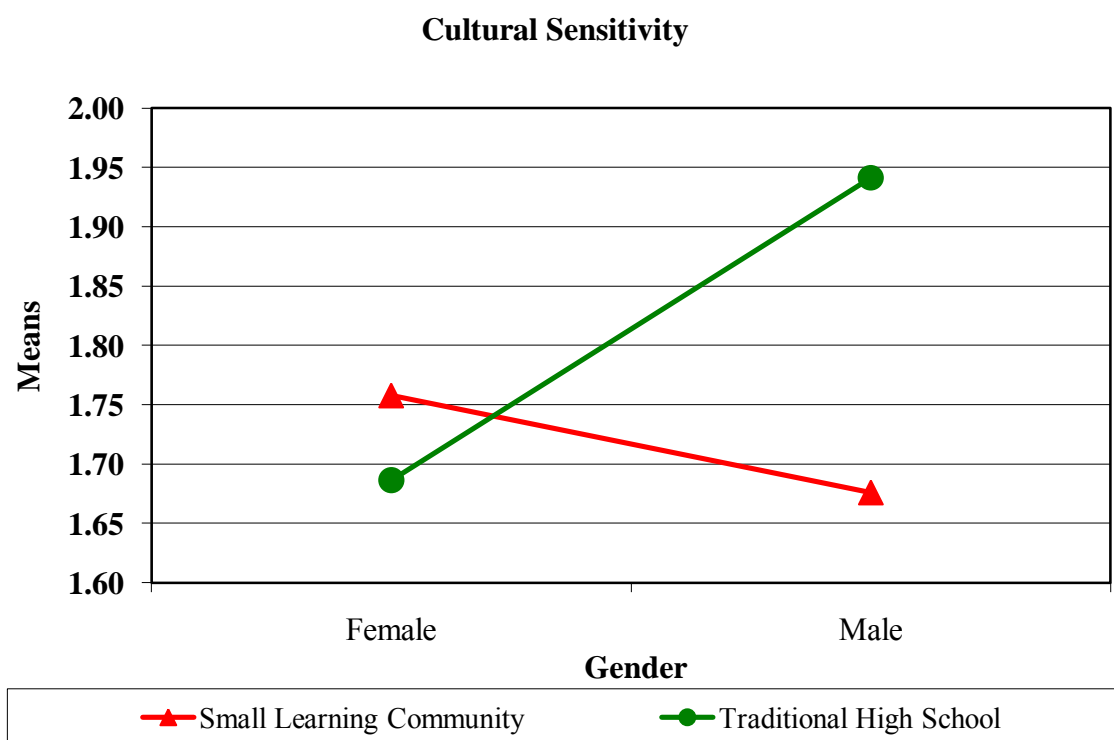


Figure 4.59 Line Graph of Cultural Sensitivity Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

Teacher Efficacy (TE)

When reviewing the TE means by gender and campus group, the differences resembled the HCS means. The SLC campuses' ninth grade female respondents' TE mean was 2.65 (N = 76, SD = .50) in comparison to THS campuses' ninth grade female respondents' TE mean of 2.71 (N = 33, SD = .53) (see Table 4.68). Male respondents had a TE mean of 2.67 (N = 38, SD = .57) at SLC campuses and 2.79 (N = 17, SD = .49) at THS campuses. The difference between the male respondents of .12 exceeded the difference of the female respondents of .06 (see Table 4.68).

Table 4.68

Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender
and Campus Groups of Teacher Efficacy

Campus Group	N	SLC Mean	SE	N	THS Mean	SE	Mean Difference
Female	76	2.65	.50	33	2.71	.53	.06
Male	38	2.67	.57	17	2.79	.49	.12

An examination of the line graph denoted the lines for each campus group's gender TE mean (see Figure 4.60). The distances between the lines supported the differences found in Table 4.68. The distance between the male respondents' TE means

was larger than the distance between the female respondents' TE means (see Figure 4.60). The relationship between the campus groups changed. For SLC campus groups, the male respondents' TE means were larger than the female respondents' TE means. On the THS campuses, the relationship remained the same, yet the difference narrowed. Finally, the relationship between the campus groups changed as the THS respondents' TE means of both sexes exceeded the SLC respondents' TE means (see Figure 4.60).

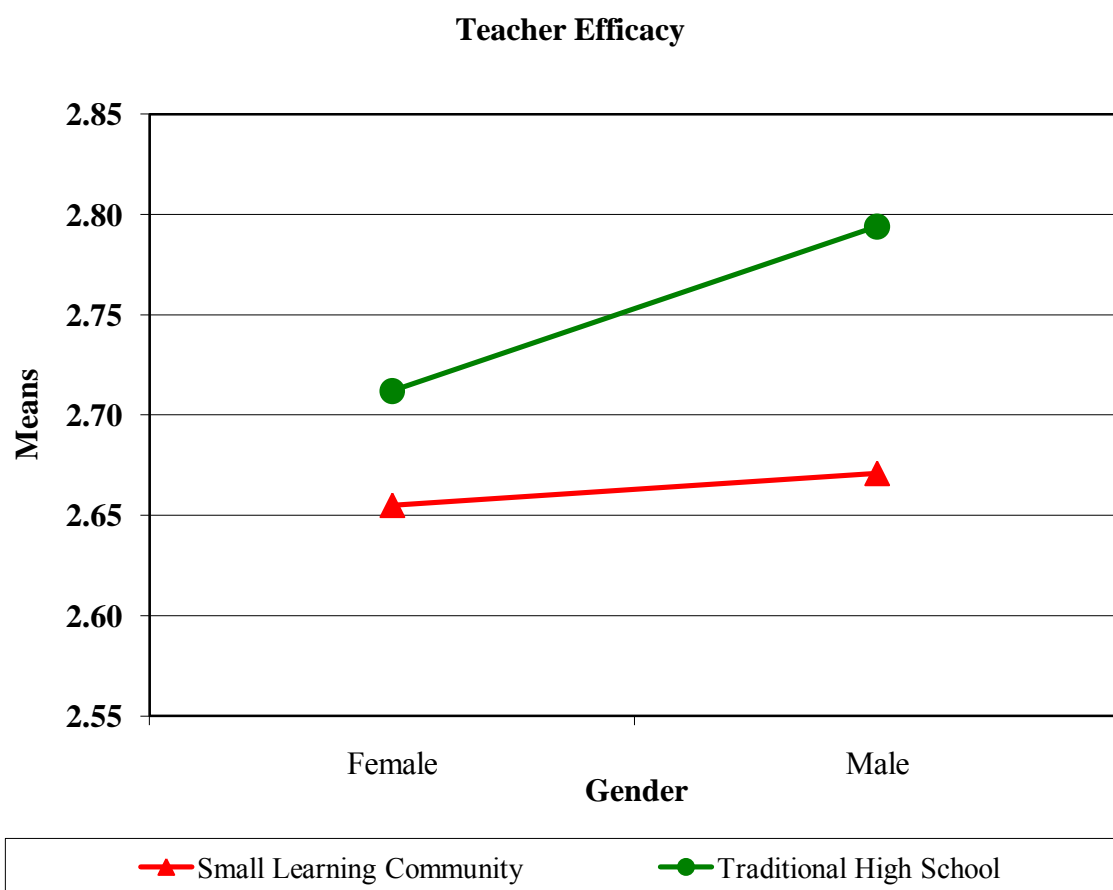


Figure 4.60 Line Graph of Teacher Efficacy Comparative Means of the CABI's Ninth Grade Respondents by Gender and Campus Groups

The means and medians by campus group of each gender group found that the highest mean to be 3.50 for CRCM means of the SLC campus group male Ninth Grade Teachers (see Table 4.70). As did the male counterparts at the THS campus group, who ranked CRCM to be their highest scored mean at 3.23 (see Table 4.70). The highest mean for the THS campus group was 3.34 for the female teachers' mean of CRCM. Conversely, the highest ranking mean for the SLC female teachers differed from the others at 3.30 for SC (see Table 4.70). The differences between medians decreased. As the medians had little differences, the comparisons were made with the means although non-parametric tests were used to determine the statistically significant differences.

The ranking for each gender resulted in the following orders. The means of females on SLC campuses scored from highest to lowest: SC, CRCM, CA, CI, HCS, TE, TB, and CS. The means of females on THS campuses ranked from highest to lowest: CRCM, SC, CA, HCS, CI, TE, TB, and CS (see Figure 4.61).

Table 4.70

Comparative Means and Medians for the CABI's Eight Factors Ninth Grade Respondents' Perceptions by Gender and Campus Group

	SLC Female Teachers			SLC Male Teachers			THS Female Teachers			THS Male Teachers		
	N	Mean	Median	N	Mean	Median	N	Mean	Median	N	Mean	Median
CABI	83	2.77	2.75	38	2.75	2.74	36	2.76	2.76	17	2.78	2.76
CA	78	3.12	3.00	38	3.00	3.00	34	2.99	3.00	16	2.99	3.00
TB	72	2.59	2.25	38	2.22	2.25	33	2.27	2.25	17	2.31	2.25
SC	83	3.34	3.40	37	3.42	3.40	36	3.16	3.10	17	3.12	3.00
CRCM	81	3.30	3.00	38	3.50	3.83	36	3.34	3.33	16	3.23	3.00
HCS	81	2.75	2.75	37	2.80	2.75	32	2.95	2.75	17	2.84	2.75
CI	77	2.95	3.00	37	3.05	3.00	34	2.93	2.88	16	3.00	2.75
CS	77	1.76	1.67	37	1.68	1.67	34	1.69	1.67	17	1.94	2.00
TE	76	2.65	2.75	38	2.67	2.75	33	2.71	2.75	17	2.79	2.75

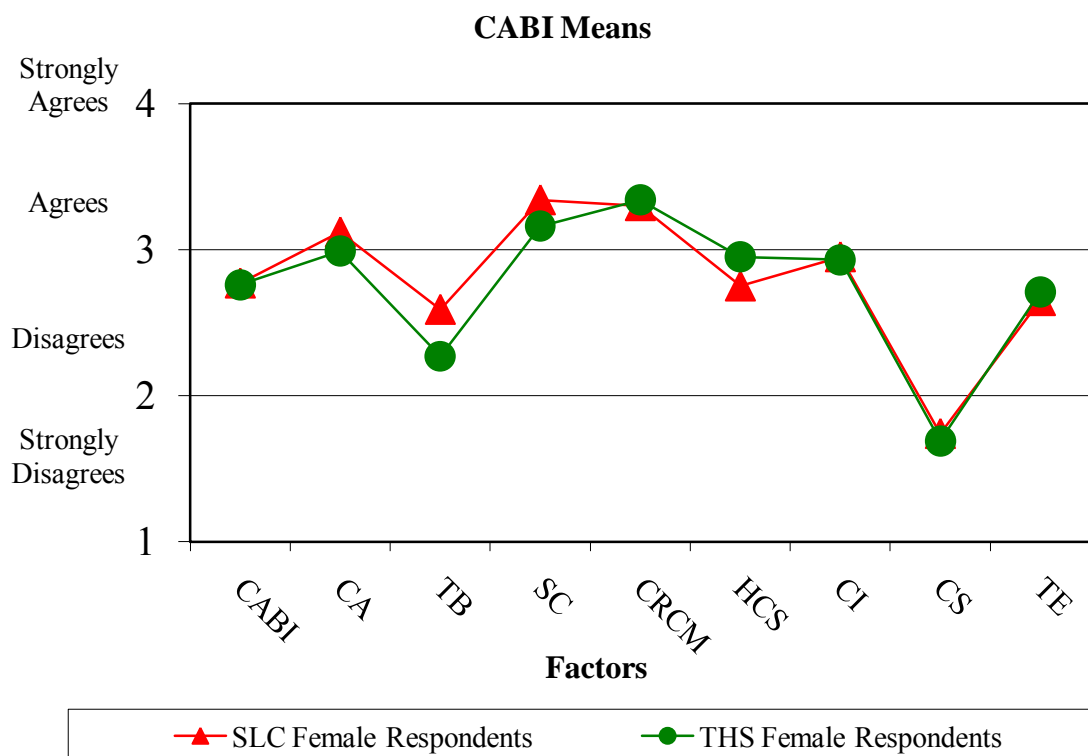


Figure 4.61 Line Graph of Comparative Means of Female Teachers' Perceptions by
Campus Group

The means of males on SLC campuses scored from highest to lowest: CRCM, SC, CI, CA, HCS, TE, TB, and CS. The means of males on THS campuses ranked from highest to lowest: CRCM, SC, CI, CA, HCS, TE, TB, and CS. Although the means differed slightly, the ranking for male teachers yielded the same order (see Figure 4.62).

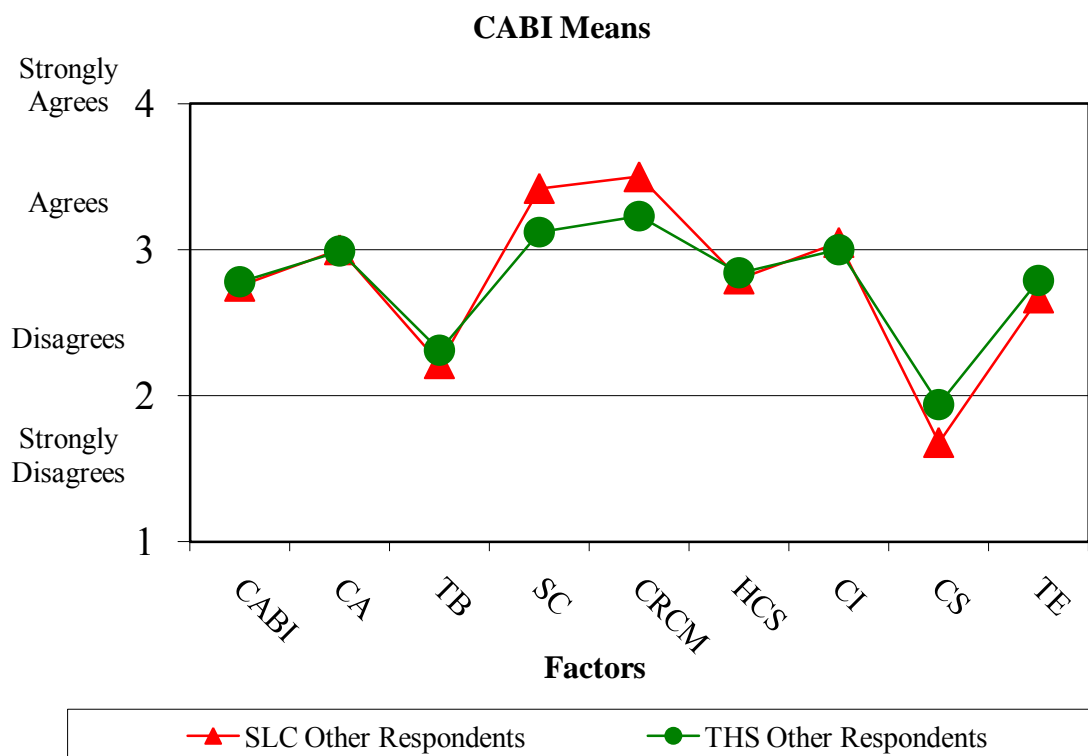


Figure 4.62 Line Graph of Comparative Means of Male Teachers' Perceptions by
Campus Group

Research Question #3

What is the relationship between ninth grade students' reading TAKS scores and the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs of the ninth grade teachers perceptions by campus type?

The exploration of the relationship between the teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI and student achievement of small learning community and traditional high school campuses as measured by the ninth grade Reading TAKS test required further

examination of the data. To begin, the respondents were separated into campus groups based on the teachers' assignments during the data collection phase. This separation resulted in eight campuses being part of the two larger campus groups: four SLC campuses and four THS campuses. This division aligned the TAKS data and the survey data to specific teachers as a group. The CABI means were rerun to create a subset of eight Campus means for the eight factors measured by the CABI. The TAKS data was then aligned to the campus that generated it.

The descriptive statistics for the TAKS related campus groups generated the means found in Table 4.71. When comparing means, the individual campus data reflected the results reported in previous results for research question one. The lowest means were found for CS and the highest means were found for SC and CRCM.

The accompanying data from the Ninth Grade Reading TAKS test revealed each of the SLC campuses exhibited scores that met or exceeded the state average of 88% for the 2005-2006 school year (TEA, 2006). In contrast, half of the THS campuses reported scores far below the state average at 57% and 60% (see Table 4.71).

The normality of the new distributions was investigated. As with the original CABI results, the assumption of normality was negated verifying the need to run the non-parametric counterpart to the product-moment correlation coefficients (Norusis, 2005; Pallant, 2007). The non-parametric test, Spearman's rho correlation coefficient, replaced the values with their rank order. The Spearman's rho correlation coefficients identified several probable relationships between the CABI and the TAKS data (see Table 4.72).

Table 4.71
Comparative Means of CABI Data by Campus with Achievement Data

	SLC Campus #1				SLC Campus #2				SLC Campus #3				THS Campus #1				THS Campus #2				THS Campus #3				THS Campus #4			
	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
CABI	37	2.72	33	2.79	8	2.79	43	2.76					9	2.75	19	2.81	4	2.72	21	2.75								
CA	37	2.78	33	2.98	8	3.26	43	3.05					9	3.16	19	3.03	4	2.95	21	3.05								
TB	37	2.27	33	2.36	8	2.36	43	2.18					9	2.26	19	2.38	4	2.35	21	2.21								
SC	37	3.07	33	3.33	8	4.56	43	3.40					9	3.35	19	3.16	4	3.45	21	3.10								
CRCM	37	3.26	33	3.43	8	4.65	43	3.29					9	3.34	19	3.42	4	3.33	21	3.22								
HCS	37	2.63	33	2.87	8	2.72	43	2.68					9	2.78	19	2.97	4	2.69	21	3.03								
CI	37	2.83	33	2.98	8	2.91	43	3.00					9	2.97	19	2.88	4	2.88	21	3.09								
CS	37	1.87	33	1.70	8	1.75	43	1.72					9	1.74	19	1.85	4	1.75	21	1.67								
TE	37	2.78	33	2.78	8	2.50	43	2.80					9	2.42	19	2.88	4	2.50	21	2.65								
RDG TAKS	37	95%	33	88%	8	91%	43	91%					9	57%	19	60%	4	90%	21	88.1%								

The resulting relationships were significant at $p < .01$ (see Table 4.72). These probable relationships produced a negative relationship indicating that the rise in one factor, such as the CABI means, and a decrease in the other, TAKS test scores. These negative relationships included TAKS test scores and the CABI means for the survey and the other factors, CA, TB, SC, CRCM, HCS, and CI (see Table 4.72). One positive correlation was noted, thereby indicating that as the CS means increased, the TAKS test scores increased with $p < .01$. The TE means reported a lack of a significant relationship at $p = .56$ (see Table 4.72).

The investigation of the correlation coefficients required further delineation of the data. To generate the data for this investigation, the data was split into the campus groups: SLC and THS (see Table 4.72). A major difference with the split data resulted in a positive correlation coefficient of .95 at a significance level of $p < .01$ for the SLC campus group's CABI means. In contrast, the THS campus group's CABI mean reported a negative correlation coefficient of -.52 at a significance level of $p < .01$ (see Table 4.71). The CS means also resulted in a positive correlation coefficient for the SLC campus group of .98 at $p < .01$ while the CS means of the THS campus group featured a negative correlation coefficient of -.54 at $p < .01$. The THS teachers' perceptions of HCS and CI reversed this situation. The HCS and CI means for the THS teachers' perceptions were computed with correlation coefficients of .53 and .44, respectively, at $p < .01$. However, for the SLC campus group, the HCS and CI correlation coefficients were calculated at -.98 and -.53, respectively at $p < .01$ (see Table 4.71). The TE means

for both campus groups failed to yield a significant relationship. The remaining factors denoted negative correlation coefficients at $p < .01$ for both campus groups.

Table 4.72

Spearman's rho Correlation of the Comparative Means of the CABI's Eight Factors with
Campus' Ninth Grade Reading TAKS

TE	Ninth Grade Respondents			SLC Campus Group			THS Campus Group		
	N	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	N	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	N	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.
CABI	174	-.63	.00	121	-.95	.00	53	-.52	.00
CA	174	-.39	.00	121	-.45	.00	53	-.27	.05
TB	174	-.52	.00	121	-.41	.00	53	-.54	.00
SC	174	-.19	.01	121	-.45	.00	53	-.53	.00
CRCM	174	-.46	.00	121	-.90	.00	53	-.69	.00
HCS	174	-.88	.00	121	-.98	.00	53	.53	.00
CI	174	-.30	.00	121	-.53	.00	53	.44	.00
CS	174	.49	.00	121	.98	.00	53	-.54	.00
TE	174	.04	.56	121	-.04	.70	53	-.04	.76

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Multicultural education is a reform movement designed to bring about a transformation of the school so that students from both genders and from diverse cultural, language, and ethnic groups will have an equal chance to experience school success. Multicultural education views the school as a social system that consists of highly interrelated parts and variables.

Therefore, in order to transform the school to bring about education equality, all the major components of the school must be substantially changed (Banks & Banks, 2004, p. 25).

Discussion

Previously, researchers have primarily focused on preservice and in-service teachers' perceptions of culture's role in elementary classrooms (Irvine, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 1995a, 1995b, 1998; Love, 2001; Love & Krueger, 2007; Milner, 2006). However, this descriptive, correlational study addressed the dearth of research focusing on the aspects of multicultural education which existed as applied to the high school classrooms and the perceptions of secondary in-service teachers. Specifically, the purpose of this descriptive, correlational study was to examine ninth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness, teacher beliefs, school climate, culturally responsive classroom management, home and community support, curriculum and instruction strategies, cultural sensitivity, and teacher efficacy as measured by the CABI as it

correlated to the student achievement as measured by the ninth grade Reading TAKS test (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005).

Although previous studies have reviewed the impact of teachers' demographics on various aspects of multicultural education in the lower grades (Acker, 2006; Milner & Hoy, 2003; Warren, 2002), a void investigating the differences between small learning community and traditional high school campuses' ninth grade teachers' perceptions existed based on the demographics of teachers' ethnicity and gender. This study's findings intertwined ninth grade teachers' perceptions based on their campus group, ethnicity and gender.

Finally, a major component of NCLB (2001) surrounds assessment and student achievement. In Texas, student achievement has been measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) (TEA, 2006). Little is currently known of the effects of teachers' perceptions correlated with secondary student achievement as measured by the TAKS for ninth grade reading. This study reviewed TAKS results and investigated possible correlations to teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and

Teacher Beliefs by Campus Group, Ethnicity and Gender

The purpose of this descriptive, correlational study was to examine ninth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and teacher beliefs as measured by the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory (CABI) (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Descriptive statistical data evaluated the differences between SLC and THS ninth grade teachers' perceptions. Demographics were reviewed and tested for significant differences between those campus groups in relation to teachers' ethnicity and gender.

Further, correlation among and between data collected from these campus groups was examined to ascertain possible trends based upon correlation coefficients.

The CABI explored teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and teacher beliefs (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Based on the Likert scale, items were ranked with a four point system where one indicated Strongly Disagreed, two indicated Disagreed, three indicated Agreed, and four indicated Strongly Agreed. Using appropriate statistical analysis as provided by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer package, the CABI results were analyzed based on campus group for small learning community campuses and traditional high school campuses. Each ninth grade teacher's perceptions were converted to the mean of their CABI responses. For the eight individual factors determined by Roberts-Walter (2007), the items correlated to each factor were averaged to generate means for each respondent. These means were then analyzed to address the three questions that follow.

Research Question #1

What are the differences by campus types (small learning community campus and traditional high school campus) of ninth grade teachers' cultural awareness and teacher beliefs perceptions?

Teachers' perceptions as measured by the CABI (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) would seem to be greater for SLC campuses compared to THS campus' teachers' perceptions in all areas measured by the CABI. However, this study appeared to find School Climate to have the only clear statistically significant difference based on campus group.

After investigating the interactions of the eight factors between the two campus groups, teachers' perceptions of school climate (SC) exhibited a statistically significant difference. Given the nature of the small learning community as a place to foster close personal relationships between administration, faculty and students, the results of the SLC teachers' perceptions reported positive SC over the THS teachers' perceptions would be representative of the SLC research (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007).

Teachers' perceptions of home and community support and school climate appeared to include input from other educational stakeholders in the schools. This statement refers to the wording of the questions which evaluate the teachers' perceptions of the actions and intentions of parents, family, administrators, district personnel and colleagues. These statements differed slightly from the rest of the CABI, which focused on the teachers' internal belief system based on the aspects of their career over which they had direct control, i.e. the classroom instruction and management, or the beliefs formulated from personal experiences conceived prior to their entering the education profession, i.e. their personal knowledge and experiences of culture and diversity in the classroom. The items featured in SC focused on collegiality of campus members including the administration's support. These items appeared to be supported by the research on the SLC concept (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007). SLC campuses should retain a feeling of small interwoven school community within the larger home community of the students. As the SLC campus' school climate is crafted to provide a safe haven for learning for the students, a

healthy by-product would be a warm and nurturing workplace for teachers and staff (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007).

Although the descriptive data failed to find other statistically significant differences, the data did provide several means that would be counterintuitive to the SLC research (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007).

Review of the means of each campus groups' perceptions of the eight factors resulted in two areas where teachers' perceptions appeared to lean toward disagreement. These areas included teacher beliefs (TB) where SLC campus group's teachers' perceptions were lower than the THS campus group's teachers' perceptions. The statements for teacher beliefs reflected the teachers' perceptions regarding the diverse cultures and often stereotypical sentiment of the teacher who lacks adequate interaction with cultural diversity outside the classroom. For instance, the statement, "I believe I would prefer to work with students and parents whose cultures are similar to mine," demonstrated the insecurity of a teacher unfamiliar with the tenets of multicultural education (Banks & Banks, 2001). Given the statements, "I believe students in poverty are more difficult to teach;" and "I believe African American students are not eager to learn as White students," (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) the SLC research would expect the teachers' perceptions to negate such sentiments based on the close relationships formed by communities of learners supported by SLC (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007). This study found the opposite in the descriptive data as the THS campuses' teachers' mean scores reported a

higher positive view under the TB category compared to the SLC campuses' teachers' mean scores.

Further, cultural sensitivity (CS) reported lower means SLC campus groups' teachers' perceptions than for THS campus groups' teachers' perceptions. The three statements for CS were all reverse scored as the items failed to follow the direction of the CABI (Roberts-Walter, 2007). The statements "I believe in a society with as many racial groups as the United States, I would accept the use of ethnic jokes or phrases by students" and "I believe there are times when 'racial statements' should be ignored" (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) seemed to indicate a lack of cultural sensitivity expected for the SLC campuses (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007).

Research Question #2

What are the differences by campus types of the eight factors of the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs Inventory by teachers' ethnicity or teachers' gender?

Ethnicity

When the teacher populations were delineated by ethnicity, the following areas were found to have statistically significant differences: cultural awareness (CA), school climate (SC) and teacher efficacy (TE).

The cultural awareness (CA) means for teachers' ethnicity of the SLC and THS campus groups found three differences. The THS and SLC African American teachers calculated this highest Mean Ranks and the THS Other teachers calculated the lowest

Mean Ranks. When paired with each other, the SLC African American teachers and the THS Other teachers indicated a statistically significant difference as did the THS African American teachers and the THS Other teachers. An additional significant difference was found with the SLC European teachers and the THS Other teachers.

With the exception of the THS Other teachers, the medians of the ethnic groups in each campus group reported positive teachers' perceptions of CA. As these differences were singularly between the SLC and THS campus groups, but the explanation for the differences that were found between ethnic groups the SLC research played a minor character to the CA research. Contrary to the expected presence of Schofield's (2004) colorblindness or Sleeter's "overwhelming presence of whiteness" (2001, p. 101), this study encountered teachers from several ethnic groups, Hispanic American, Native American, Asian American, and Bi-Racial American, to profess perceptions of less CA than their African American and European American counterparts. The statements for CA featured aspects of the classroom that supported the students' home culture, i.e. "I believe cultural views of a diverse community should be included in the school's yearly program planning" and "I believe I am comfortable with people who exhibit value or beliefs different from my own" (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Unlike the statements of TB which discussed specific cultural groups, the CA statements encompassed all students as individuals with different needs. The THS Other campus teachers' low means indicated a tendency toward inflexibility that would directly affect all of their students.

The school climate (SC) means for teachers' ethnicity of the SLC and THS campus groups found two differences. The SLC African American teachers calculated this highest Mean Rank and the THS European American teachers calculated the lowest Mean Rank. When paired with each other, the SLC African American teachers and the THS European American teachers indicated a statistically significant difference as did the THS European American teachers and the SLC Other teachers. The CABI statements regarding SC indicated that teachers on the SLC campuses felt supported by their administrators and their professional colleagues; for examples, "I feel supported by building principal," and "I believe my contributions are appreciated by my colleagues" (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). These perceptions supported the research of Oxley (2004) which purported that building and district support would be the place to start when building a SLC campus; and the research of Brown and Medway (2007) who found that school effectiveness required "teachers felt a sense of cohesiveness and collegiality" (p. 536).

The final statistically significant differences were found in the teacher efficacy (TE) between ethnicities of the campus groups. When comparing the campus groups means, all ethnicities fell within the midrange of the Likert scale denoting ambiguity for TE. When paired with the TAKS scores for the campuses, this ambiguity regarding their efficacy in the classroom could explain the teachers' perceptions of TE. The CABI statements for TE included two particular belief statements leading to the impression that the teachers who lacked TE would respond favorably: "I believe there are factors beyond the control of teachers that cause student failure," and "I believe some students

do not want to learn” (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). The remaining statements for TE investigated the interaction of TE with multicultural education: “I believe in-service training focuses too much on ‘multicultural’ issues,” and “I believe teaching of ethnic customs and traditions is not the responsibility of public school personnel” (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). The THS Other teachers reported the highest Mean Rank and an undeniable median representing positive TE.

When the relationships between the ethnic groups by campus group were measured, three statistically significant differences were found. Two of these relationships were calculated for the SLC African American teachers who reported the lowest mean for TE. The three differences were between SLC African American teachers and SLC European American teachers, SLC African American teachers and THS Other teachers, and SLC European American teachers and THS African American teachers. These findings countered the work of Goddard and Skrla (2006). The findings of Goddard and Skrla (2006) stated teachers of color expressed stronger beliefs of teacher efficacy than their European American counterparts. In this study, the African American teachers from both campus groups calculated means lower than any other ethnic group for TE.

Gender

The second part of research question #2 included the impact of gender on teachers’ perceptions as measured by the CABI (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). As with ethnicity, the teachers’ perceptions of SC provided statistically significant differences. The highest Mean Ranks for SC were found for the SLC Females and SLC

Males. These Mean Ranks aligned with the two groups with differences: SLC Female teachers and THS Female teachers, and SLC Male teachers and THS Female teachers. These findings supported the previous findings and could be contributed to the same rationale for validation. Effective SLC campuses must begin with building and district support and professional learning communities (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007). As the data failed to yield significance between gender groups within the same campus group, it could be argued that the differences occurred based on the campus group rather than gender.

Research Question #3

What is the relationship between ninth grade students' reading TAKS scores and the Cultural Awareness and Beliefs of the ninth grade teachers perceptions by campus type?

A correlation matrix of the CABI means and the TAKS ninth grade reading scores using Spearman's rho found that the means of seven of the eight factors measured by the CABI appeared to have a negative relationship with the campus' TAKS scores at $p < .01$. Only TE was excluded. The negative correlation indicated that as the means of the CABI factors increase, the TAKS appeared to decrease or the reverse relationship, as the TAKS increased, the means of the seven factors decreased. Only the means of the teachers' perceptions of the TE appeared to increase as the TAKS scores increased. These relationships appeared to counter the research on student achievement and multicultural education (Carabillo, 2006; Datnow, et al., 2003; McKinley, 2006; Zirkel, 2008). Although unable to point to one specific element of multicultural education

professional development, Carabillo's mixed methods study (2007) found that increased use of culturally responsive pedagogy led to increased student achievement in the language arts. In a longitudinal mixed methods study, Datnow, et al. (2003) reported gains in reading achievement attributed to the inclusion of multicultural tenets in the teachers' perceptions. Several of the teachers requested the inclusion of additional areas expressing their newly found cultural sensitivity (Datnow, et al., 2003).

McKinley's (2006) research investigated the curriculum and instructional strategies of teachers employed at schools without an achievement gap between their African American and European American students. Lack of an achievement gap correlated with trends of successful strategies which have included several of the factors measured by the CABI: CA, CS, TE, CRCM, and CI. These same trends were reported by Zirkel's (2008) review of the literature on multicultural education and student achievement. Zirkel's (2008) first caveat included the benefits of multicultural education for all students.

When the means were analyzed by campus group, the analysis of Spearman's rho was recalculated. The relationships between the CABI means and the TAKS scores remained unchanged for the SLC campus groups' teachers. However, three relationship changes occurred for the THS campus groups' teachers. The HCS and CI correlation coefficients converted from negative to positive appearing to indicate that as the mean for the teachers' perceptions of HCS and CI increased, the TAKS scores also increased. The other relationship change was the conversion of the CS correlation coefficient from

negative to positive, thus appearing to indicate that as teachers' perceptions of CS increased in agreement, the TAKS scores also increased.

These changes provided a positive indication for student achievement when linked with teachers possessing higher perceptions of HCS, CI and CS. Research by Warren (2002) was reflected in the CABI statements regarding HCS; such as, "I believe 'all' students are treated equitably regardless of race, culture, disability, gender or social economic status," and "I believe my ISD families are supportive of our mission to effectively teach all students" (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Warren (2002) found that student achievement and effective teaching could be linked the teacher's level of appreciation of the student's home community. The CABI's HCS data supported Warren's (2002) findings.

When discussing the curriculum and instruction aspects of multicultural education inherent in finding success with diverse populations, culturally responsive pedagogy dominates the conversation. Gay's definition of teaching, "matching instructional techniques to the learning styles of diverse students" (2002, p. 112) established the basis of the culturally responsive pedagogy. The CABI statements: "I believe I am culturally responsive in my teaching behaviors"; "I believe frequently used material within my class represents at least three different ethnic groups"; and "I believe cooperative learning is an integral part of my ISD teaching and learning philosophy" (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005) echoed the needs identified for educational attainment in Allen and Boykin (1992) of "instructional settings designed around the sociocultural integrity of black children and cooperative learning" (Allen & Boykin, p. 590).

Cultural sensitivity in the CABI included the statement: “I believe a child should be referred ‘for testing’ if learning difficulties appear to be due to cultural differences” (Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2005). Like the other two statements on CS in the CABI, this statement failed to meet the definition of cultural sensitivity as put forth in this study and failed to follow the direction of the rest of the CABI. All three statements negated the proposition put forth by Gay, who stated, “culture determines how we think, believe, and behave, and these in turn, affect how we teach and learn” (2000, p. 9). Given this evidence, the three statements of CS were reverse scored to better align the data with the rest of the CABI (Roberts-Walter, 2007).

The three positive relationships were found in the THS campus groups’ teachers’ perceptions; however, their TAKS scores were lower than their SLC counterparts. This fact established a need for increasing the teachers’ perceptions of the CABI factors. One of the realities of the urban school district in this study appears to be the de facto segregation of the retained students. Another disturbing reality appeared to be the demographics of the student population represented by these retainees. Overall, the ninth grade student populations of retainees at the traditional high school campuses were 95.7 percent students of color and 61.2 percent male students (see Table 3.3 and Table 3.4).

Auwarter and Arguete (2008) investigated the role of student gender and socioeconomic status on teachers’ perceptions. Their research study reported teachers’ perception of male students with low socioeconomic households to differ negatively from male students with high socioeconomic households (Auwarter & Arguete, 2008).

These teachers' perceptions, unlike their perceptions of female students with low socioeconomic households, interacted negatively with the teachers' sense of efficacy and expectations for these male students (Auwarter & Arguete, 2008). In this study, the THS ninth grade teachers taught all students who had previously failed the ninth grade. The lower means and medians reported could be attributed to their perceptions of these retained students and contribute to the lower achievement scores on the TAKS test.

Recommendations

The following recommendations have been made based on the literature review and the results of this study.

Small Learning Community Concept

Oxley's research listed the five domains of secondary small learning communities as: (1) building and district support, (2) teaching and learning teams, (3) rigorous, relevant curriculum and instruction, (4) continuous program improvement and (5) inclusive programs (2005, p. 47). The research on teachers' perceptions and the SLC domains appeared to yield several key points suitable for this study.

Research on teaching and learning teams by Houseman (2007) found that placing teachers in professional learning communities increased their continued professional growth and impacted their interactions with their students. In addition to collaborative teaching staff, one of the keys to small learning community success rests with the strength of the administrator and restructuring of the school (Oxley, 2005). In this study, the small learning community campus groups' teachers' perceptions means appeared to

be lower than expected in TB, HCS, CS, and TE given the domains of the small learning community concept (Oxley, 2005).

Another area of professional development suggested for the successful implementation of the SLC concept appears to include culturally responsive pedagogy with increased teacher training in the factors of CA and CS. In the research on small learning community concept, school restructuring would appear to lead to teams of teachers with higher expectations of all students and heterogeneous grouping of the students for instructional purposes (Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997). McLaughlin (1994) found that the personal relationship between teachers and students played a key role in the students' perceptions of their educational experience and contributed to their level of achievement in the classes of those teachers, who demonstrated CA and CS. Kaufman, Conroy, Gardner and Oswald (2008) discussed CS as meeting the needs of the individual student, while remaining insensitive to the student's home culture. This definition would appear to better fit the results of this study as many of the means of the teachers' perceptions of CS were consistently lower than any other factor of the CABI.

However, *We Can't Teach What We Don't Know*, the title of Howard's (1999) book, referred to European American teachers' knowledge of students' cultural background and teacher preparation in facing diversity of students' cultures in the classroom. When discussing the theory behind teacher preparation in Culturally Responsive Teaching, Gay wrote: "The knowledge that teachers need to have about cultural diversity goes beyond mere awareness of, respect for, and general recognition of the fact that ethnic groups have different values or express similar values in various

ways” (2002, p. 107). Similarly, Banks (2001) called for a change in teacher preparation to promote and clarify teachers’ “notions of race, culture, and ethnicity and to view themselves as cultural and racial beings” (2001, p. 10). When reviewed together, the research on SLC concept and Culturally Responsive Pedagogy appear to combine to develop the list of skills needed to facilitate TE in the SLC: CA and CS combined with Culturally Responsive Pedagogy (Banks, 2001; Gay, 2002; Howard, 1999; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; McLaughlin, 1994). Although it is recommended that all secondary teachers in the urban school district featured in this study receive additional training promoting the tenets of culturally responsive pedagogy, the successful implementation of the small learning community concept appears to increase the need for professional development for the teachers employed at the SLC campuses.

Student Achievement

This study found a correlation between teachers’ perceptions of three key areas of the SLC campus structures, yet the negative correlation for teachers’ perceptions on the THS campuses require further study. Although the large percentages of retained, male students of color supported the research on retention and dropouts by students of color and students representing low socioeconomic levels (Barber, 2006; Bridgeland, DiIulio, & Morison, 2006; Greene & Winters, 2006; Osbourne & Walker, 2006; Patterson, Hale & Stessman, 2007), a recommendation from the findings of this study appears to indicate the need to increase the means of the THS campus groups’ teachers’ perceptions in the areas of HCS, CI and CS through professional development or personal growth plans.

Implications for Further Research

Based on the findings and conclusions of this descriptive, correlational study, the following have been presented as possible implications for future exploration:

1. Replicate study in a different geographical region.
2. Using interview questions based on the CABI's factors, conduct a qualitative study of the SLC ninth-grade teachers and the THS ninth grade teachers, who responded to the CABI.
3. Conduct a concurrent validity study of the CABI to investigate the effectiveness of the items in measuring the eight factors.
4. Compare small learning community teachers' perceptions and traditional high school teachers' perceptions of Cultural Awareness and beliefs as measured by the CABI in relation to years of teaching experience and certification route.
5. Without segregating ninth grade retainees on the THS campuses, compare THS ninth grade teachers' perceptions and SLC ninth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs in districts that provided both types of ninth grade options.

Conclusion

This descriptive, correlational study of ninth grade teachers' perceptions of cultural awareness and beliefs yielded unexpected results when delineated by the campus group in which the teacher was employed. The data found statistically significant differences between SLC campuses' and THS campuses' teachers' perceptions of SC when delineated by campus group, when delineated by ethnicity and campus group, and

finally when delineated by gender and campus group. The SLC campus teachers' perceptions reported positive SC and higher means and medians for SC than their THS counterparts. The research on SLC campuses cited positive SC as a major force for effectiveness (Oxley, 2004; 2005). The findings of this study supported this premise.

Two additional factors of the CABI reported statistically significant difference when delineated by ethnicity: CA and TE. Unexpectedly, the CABI data for CA found the THS Other teachers exhibiting lower CA than their European American counterparts. As two of differences featured differences between SLC campus teachers and THS campus teachers, the rationale for the differences could be attributed to the campus setting; especially given the tenet of SLC requiring teachers form close relationships with their students and the home community (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007). However, additional research on CA would expect the findings to yield lower CA for European American teachers. For this study, lower CA was reported by teachers from a diverse group of ethnicities, labeled Other for this study, that included: Hispanic American and Native American/Asian/Pacific Islander. Although the literature would suggest these groups would exhibit higher levels of CA (Schofield, 2004; Sleeter, 2001), the small numbers of these ethnicities represented in this study could be a contributing factor to their lower reported CA.

The TE findings of this study when compared to the research of Goddard and Skrla (2006) contradicted the previous research. African American teachers reported the lowest levels of the TE. When paired with the student achievement as measured by the Ninth Grade Reading TAKS test, the SLC African American teachers would be expected

to report high TE. Their campuses consistently reported high passing rates for student groups (TEA, 2006).

The relationships between teachers' perceptions of the eight factors and the TAKS for ninth grade reading reported negative correlations for the small learning campus groups' teachers and a mixed results for the traditional high school campus groups' teachers with five negative correlations and three positive correlations for HCS, CI, and CS. In the final analysis, these results countered the expected responses given the research on small learning communities (Hawkins, 2004; Lee & Smith, 1994, 1997; Oxley, 2005; Springer, et al., 2007). This chapter summarized the results of the study, made recommendations for teacher preparation programs and discussed implications for further research.

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APPENDIX**CULTURAL AWARENESS AND BELIEFS INVENTORY**

Teacher Perception Survey

Please give responses to the following survey using your scantron sheet. Write only the name of your school on this sheet. After writing the name of your school on this sheet, begin with question # 1 on the scantron sheet. Questions 1 – 11 are basic questions about yourself. Question # 12 starts the actual survey about your perceptions.

This survey will assist us in understanding your perceptions of our current challenge in meeting the needs of “all” learners in your ISD. This is a voluntary survey and it is your choice to participate. Your responses will assist in constructing staff development that will meet the unique and immediate concerns of the district. It is important that your responses be truthful. Do not write your name, all information from individuals will be kept confidential.

When completed, return the Survey and your scantron sheet to the designated person.

Write the name of your school here: _____

Basic information – write on scantron sheet:

1. Gender

- A. Female
- B. Male

2. Type of Degree

- A. Bachelor's
- B. Master's
- C. Doctorate

3. Years of Teaching

- A. 1-11 month
- B. 1-3 years
- C. 4-6 years
- D. 7-9 years
- E. 10 or more years

4. Current Grade Level

- A. Pre-K- 1st grade
- B. 2nd grade
- C. 3rd grade
- D. 4th grade
- E. None of the above
secondary

5. Current Grade

- A. 5th grade
- B. 6th grade
- C. 7th grade
- D. 8th grade
- E. None of the above

6. Current Grade

- A. 9th grade
- B. 10th grade
- C. 11th grade
- D. 12th grade
- E. Multiple

7. Certification

- A. Early Childhood
- B. Elementary
- C. English/LA/Reading
- D. Science
- E. None of the above

8. Certification

- A. Social Studies
- B. Mathematics
- C. Special Education
- D. Gifted/Talented
- E. None of the above

9. Certification

- A. Bilingual Education
- B. The Arts
- C. Physical/Health Ed.
- D. Technology
- E. Other – not listed

10. Ethnicity

- A. African American
- B. Arab American
- C. Asian American
- D. Bi-racial American
- E. None of the above

11. Ethnicity

- A. European American
- B. Hispanic American
- C. Native American
- D. Pacific Islander
- E. Other – not listed

Answer the questions on the scantron sheet using the following scale:

(A) = Strongly Agree (B) = Agree (C)= Disagree (D) Strongly Disagree

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. I feel supported by my building principal. | A | B | C | D |
| 13. I feel supported by the administrative staff. | A | B | C | D |
| 14. I feel supported by my professional colleagues. | A | B | C | D |
| 15. I believe I have opportunities to grow professionally
as I fulfill duties at my ISD. | A | B | C | D |
| 16. I believe we spend too much time focusing on
standardized tests. | A | B | C | D |
| 17. I believe my contributions are appreciated by my colleagues. | A | B | C | D |
| 18. I need more support in meeting the needs of my most
challenging students. | A | B | C | D |
| 19. I believe “all” students in my ISD are treated equitably
regardless of race, culture, disability, gender or social
economic status. | A | B | C | D |
| 20. I believe my ISD families are supportive of our
mission to effectively teach all students. | A | B | C | D |
| 21. I believe my ISD families of African American students are
supportive of our mission to effectively teach all students. | A | B | C | D |

22. I believe the district has strong support for academic excellence from our surrounding community (civic, church, business). A B C D
23. I believe some students do not want to learn. A B C D
24. I believe teachers should be held accountable for effectively teaching students who live in adverse circumstances. A B C D
25. I believe there are factors beyond the control of teachers that cause student failure. A B C D
26. I believe the in-service training this past year assisted me in improving my teaching strategies. A B C D
27. I believe I am culturally responsive in my teaching behaviors. A B C D
28. I believe cooperative learning is an integral part of my ISD teaching and learning philosophy. A B C D
29. I develop my lessons based on Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS). A B C D
30. I believe African American students consider performing well in school as “acting White.” A B C D
31. I believe African American students have more behavior problems than other students. A B C D
32. I believe African American students are not as eager to excel in school as White students. A B C D
33. I believe teachers engage in bias behavior in the classroom. A B C D

34. I believe students who live in poverty are more difficult to teach. A B C D
35. I believe African American students do not bring as many strengths to the classroom as their White peers. A B C D
36. I believe students that are referred to special education usually qualify for special education services in our school. A B C D
37. I believe it is important to identify with the racial groups of the students I serve. A B C D
38. I believe I would prefer to work with students and parents whose cultures are similar to mine. A B C D
39. I believe I am comfortable with people who exhibit values or beliefs different from my own. A B C D
40. I believe cultural views of a diverse community should be included in the school's yearly program planning. A B C D
41. I believe it is necessary to include on-going family input in program planning. A B C D
42. I believe I have experienced difficulty in getting families from African American communities involved in the education of their students. A B C D
43. I believe when correcting a child's spoken language, one should model appropriate classroom language without further explanation. A B C D
44. I believe there are times when the use of "non-standard" English should be accepted in school. A B C D

45. I believe in asking families of diverse cultures how they wish to be identified (e.g., African American, Bi-racial, Mexican). A B C D
46. I believe that in a society with as many racial groups as the United States, I would accept the use of ethnic jokes or phrases by students. A B C D
47. I believe there are times when “racial statements” should be ignored. A B C D
48. I believe a child should be referred “for testing” if learning difficulties appear to be due to cultural differences. A B C D
49. I believe the teaching of ethnic customs and traditions is not the responsibility of public school personnel. A B C D
50. I believe Individualized Education Program meetings or planning should be scheduled for the convenience of the family. A B C D
51. I believe frequently used material within my class represents at least three different ethnic groups. A B C D
52. I believe students from certain ethnic groups appear lazy when it comes to academic engagement. A B C D
53. I believe in-service training focuses too much on “multicultural” issues. A B C D
54. I believe I address inappropriate classroom behavior even when it could be easily be ignored. A B C D

55. I believe I am able to effectively manage students from all racial groups. A B C D
56. I believe I have a clear understanding of the issues surrounding classroom management. A B C D
57. I believe I have a clear understanding of the issues surrounding discipline. A B C D

*Please answer the following questions with a written response
on the back of your scantron sheet.*

- Question A. What is your greatest behavioral management concern as you reflect on your professional responsibilities and the learners you serve?
- Question B. What racial, ethnic, and/or socio-economic concerns do you have as it relates to your role as a teacher?
- Question C. What leadership concerns do you have as it relates to your ISD?

VITA

Shanah Lea Yandell

Department of Curriculum and Instruction
c/o Dr. Carter
Texas A&M University
College Station, TX 77843-4232

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

Degree	Content	Institution	Date
Ph.D.	Curriculum and Instruction	Texas A&M University, College Station	2010
M.S.	Curriculum and Instruction	Texas A&M University Corpus Christi	1992
B.S.	Elementary Education	Texas A&M University Corpus Christi	1989

CERTIFICATES HELD:

Elementary Education (Grades 1-8)

Mathematics (Grades 1-8)

Secondary Mathematics (Grades 6-12)

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

Position	Location	Date
Dean of Student Success	Kingsville Independent School District Kingsville, Texas	2007-Present
Educational Consultant	Various School Districts Coastal Bend Area, Texas	2006-Present
Mathematics Specialist	AIMS PreK-16 Grant Del Mar College Corpus Christi, TX	2006-2007
Teacher, Mathematics	Tuloso Midway Independent School District Corpus Christi, TX	1997-2005

PUBLICATIONS:

Yandell, S. (2004, June). *Teachers' use of educational technology and student achievement*. 6th Annual Conference of the Race and Ethnic Studies Institute of Texas A&M University, Cabo San Lucas, Mexico.

PRESENTATIONS:

Yandell, S. & Gonzalez, R. (2009, July). *Dean of student success: Silly title, essential position*. Gear UP/STAR National Conference, San Francisco, CA.

Yandell, S. & Gonzalez, R. (2009, July). *Enhancing the education experience*. MASBA Conference, San Antonio, TX.